Language and linguistics

LINGUISTIC THEORY *See also abstract* 78–47

78–1 **Burke, Kenneth.** Words as deeds. *Centrum* (Minneapolis, Minn.), 3, 2 (1975), 147–68.

This is a full and detailed criticism of Austin. It considers the William James Lectures in depth, and incorporates discussion of Malinowski, Aristotle, Ogden and Richards, and the author's own earlier works. The author stresses the conventional nature of the verbal utterance, the importance of the context of situation, the attitudinal aspects of all speech acts, and the distinction between an action and its consequences. His own conclusions are as follows: speech acts are illocutionary attitudes grounded in the speechless behaviour of the body. They are not reducible to terms of the body's motions, but one can enquire into their modes of motion which are quantifiable (e.g. brain waves, endocrine secretions) though as acts they are qualitative. Speech acts are in the collective realm of 'culture', but grounded in each user's individual physiological 'nature'.

78–2 **Cook, Walter A.** Durative aspect: the process of no change. *Georgetown University Working Papers on Languages and Linguistics* (Washington, DC), 12 (1976), 1–23.

Aspect is defined as a way of conceiving the passage of the action without reference to the speech situation. Inchoative aspect is contrasted with durative aspect. Contrasting sentences, e.g. *Max warms the soup, Max keeps the soup warm*, have different underlying structures which have different but logically related predicates; COME ABOUT, inchoative, expressing a process of change over time, and REMAIN, durative, expressing a process of no change over time. Construed as two-place predicates whose arguments are (*a*) an embedded predication and (*b*) an appropriate time value, they have different temporal operators. COME ABOUT has AT, allowing only point time adverbials; REMAIN has FOR, allowing only period time adverbials. Simple inchoatives take embedded process or state propositions, causative-inchoatives take embedded process, state or action predicates. Simple duratives take processes or states, causative duratives take processes, states or actions. Durative and inchoative actions are indistinguishable from their causative equivalents.

These five deep durative structures are manifested in eight surface structures with the aspectual verbs *stay* and *keep*, both as (i) intransitive, one-place predicates with sentential subjects, and (ii) as transitive, two-place predicates with sentential objects. Simple duratives have surfaces using $stay_1$ with states,

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*keep*₁ with processes, causative duratives have surfaces using *stay*₂ (like subjects only), *keep*₂ (like or unlike subjects) with states, *keep*₂ (unlike subjects only) with processes, and *keep*₂ (like or unlike subjects) with actions.

78-3   **Downes, William.** The imperative and pragmatics. *Journal of Linguistics* (London), **13**, 1 (1977), 77–97.

Three possible linguistic analyses of the imperative construction are discussed: surface and deep structure analyses and the performative analysis. Arguments concerning the subject of imperatives, the underlying modal *will*, IMP and the underlying performative, and false predictions occasioned by deriving imperatives from underlying performatives, are advanced in favour of the surface structure analysis. These show that everything needed for main clause infinitives to have the illocutionary potential of commands is present in the surface structure.

The attempt to represent in linguistic analysis non-linguistic facts such as speakers' beliefs about situations is theoretically misguided. The creativity of language use and the inherent indeterminacy of utterance meaning suggest rather a pragmatic analysis of such phenomena. In the particular case of imperatives the grammar is interested in how some constructions are more overtly compatible with the preconditions for a given illocutionary force and therefore relatively unopaque.

78-4   **Fraser, Bruce.** Warning and threatening. *Centrum* (Minneapolis, Minn), **3**, 2 (1975), 169–80.

It is argued that, in order for speech-act theory to be validated, it is essential to analyse in detail certain crucial speech acts. Thus the paper considers 'warning', and (as a special type of warning) 'threatening'. Conditions and associated conditions for 'warning' are given, and the notion of Perlocutionary Warning is proposed. Illocutionary Threat is treated in the same way, where associated conditions are significantly different. It is argued that the view of 'threat' as a type of negative 'promise' is erroneous, given the difference in terms of obligations to carry out the action implied. The lack of 'threaten' as a usable performative verb is given some extended consideration. Notice that the same feature holds for other languages as well. It is suggested that social forces determine acceptability here.

78-5   **Haberland, Hartmut and Mey, Jacob, L.** Linguistics and pragmatics. *Journal of Pragmatics* (The Hague), **1**, 1 (1977), 1–12.

The article discusses various interpretations of pragmatics, with a view to specifying an interpretation for this new journal, both in terms of the object

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of the science, and the way in which it is to be approached. It is suggested that the central question for pragmatics should be 'How did this utterance come to be produced?', and that language cannot be studied in the abstract, but must refer to the societal conditions that language learners and users live by. The simple distinction between 'pure' and 'applied' linguistics is rejected, as is the notion of pseudo-objectivity, and it is argued that the pragmatic approach is the essential foundation of all scientific study of language.

78–6 **Hirsch, E. D.** What's the use of a speech-act theory? *Centrum* (Minneapolis, Minn), **3**, 2 (1975), 121–4.

It is argued that speech-act theory cannot be of value as a guide to critical method in literary scholarship, despite its status as a useful antidote to loose literary theory. The generality of the theory means that its usefulness as a critical tool is immediately diminished. There is a brief discussion of the origins of Austin's work, strictly in the context of Oxford philosophy, opposing mentalistic concepts of propositional statements. It is suggested that the usefulness of the concept of illocutionary force is in arguments against the literary-critical notion of the self-sufficient text, and the theory is criticised in terms of empirical observation, in that the line of demarcation between locutionary and illocutionary meaning is unclear, and psycholinguistic experiment suggests that Austin's model is over-simple.

78–7 **Panfilov, V. Z.** Категории мышления и языка.Становление и развитие категории качества. [Categories of thought and language. The origin and development of the category of quality.] *Вопросы языкознания* (Moscow), **6** (1976), 3–18.

The logical category of quality is defined. Linguistic expression of this category is then examined with respect to a wide range of languages. General tendencies are noted, such as the fact that in many languages many qualitative adjectives tend to have links with nouns, suggesting an association of the concept of quality primarily with objects. Other languages show a predominance of qualifying words which associate more with verbs, suggesting an association of the concept of quality with actions. It is argued that language as such is the result of man's growing ability to abstract and generalise from particular instances. It is unlikely that in the beginning objects and actions were categorised separately. Evidence for this view is offered from a wide range of languages, and explanations for various types of syncretism which are present in different languages are set out.

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78-8 **Rivero, María-Luisa and Walker, Douglas, C.** Surface structure and the centrality of syntax. *Theoretical Linguistics* (Berlin), **3**, 1/2 (1976), 99–124.

This paper examines the status of surface structure in transformational grammar, and the way that surface structure mediates the contacts between the phonological and semantic components of the grammar. Surface structure refers not to a single but to at least four distinct notions that do not necessarily define a homogeneous level of representation: output of the syntactic component, input to the phonological component, phonetic structure, and the level at which surface structure constraints are stated. Based on a survey of the literature, the conclusions include the necessity of direct links between deeper syntax and phonology, the influence of phonology on various syntactic operations, the need for phonetic information in certain semantic interpretation rules, and the lack of homogeneity among surface structure constraints. There is a recurrent influence of prosodic and morphological phenomena which motivate the revisions needed in the general organisation of a grammar because they limit the types of interaction between the various grammatical domains.

LANGUAGE AND LOGIC   *See also abstract* 78-7

78-9 **Morgan, Charles Grady and Pelletier, Francis Jeffry.** Some notes concerning fuzzy logics. *Linguistics and Philosophy* (Dordrecht), **1**, 1 (1977), 79–97.

Fuzzy logics are systems of logic with infinitely many truth values. Such logics have been claimed to have an extremely wide range of applications in linguistics, computer technology, psychology, etc. In this note, the known results concerning infinitely many-valued logics are canvased; suggestions are made for alterations of the known systems in order to accommodate what modern devotees of fuzzy logic claim to desire; and some theorems are proved to the effect that there can be no fuzzy logic which will do what its advocates want. Finally, ways to accommodate these desires in finitely many-valued logics are suggested.

LINGUISTIC DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS   *See also abstracts* 78-54/6

78-10 **Comrie, Bernard.** The syntax of action nominals: a cross-language study. *Lingua* (Amsterdam), **40** (1976), 177–201.

Action nominal noun phrases, such as *the enemy's destruction of the city*, have proved of perennial interest to transformational grammar, which attempts to relate them explicitly to the corresponding sentences, such as *the enemy destroyed*

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the city, and also more recently to relate their internal structure to that of other noun phrases (e.g. *John's leg, the roof of the house*). In some languages,the internal structure of the action nominal noun phrase parallels that of the sentence, with the arguments (subject, objects) of the action nominal in the same form as the corresponding arguments of a finite verb. [Examples from Tamil and the ergative languages Avar and Tabasaran.] At the other extreme, in some languages the internal structure of the action nominal noun phrase parallels that of an ordinary noun phrase: some verbal categories remain unexpressed (e.g. tense, aspect, mood), others are expressed by means of noun phrase syntax rather than verb syntax (e.g. subjective genitive, objective genitive, manner adjective). [Examples from English and Slavonic languages.]

Other languages combine elements of noun phrase syntax with elements of verb syntax in the action nominal noun phrase. Turkic languages have a subjective genitive, but other arguments (including the direct object) remain in the same form as if accompanying a verb. In Classical Arabic, either the subject or the direct object of the action nominal may be in the genitive, but if both are present one (usually the direct object) remains in the form appropriate to the corresponding argument of a verb. Such intermediate types suggest a scale of degrees along which action nominal constructions of different languages can be arranged typologically, and suggest moreover that noun and verb do not necessarily form rigidly discrete categories, since many languages have forms combining various aspects of noun and verb.

78–11   **Gal'perin, I. R.** К проблеме зависимости предложения от контекста. [On the problem of sentence context-dependency.] *Вопросы языкознания* (Moscow), **1** (1977), 48–55.

Recently a new branch of linguistics has come into being, that of text grammar. Research work in this field must start by establishing the categorical features which together define the concept 'text'. Several such features are listed, and one in particular, dependency, is the focus of attention in this paper. The context-dependency of sentences has been the subject of enquiry for some time, but in this paper the author is specifically concerned with the epigram, which is analysed in terms of grammatical structure, functional sentence perspective and intonation.

78–12   **Palmer, F. R.** Modals and actuality. *Journal of Linguistics* (London), **13**, 1 (1977), 1–23.

It is reasonable to assume that saying someone can do something does not imply that he will do it; actually this is not so – dynamic CAN often implies actuality; but the *could* form of CAN is not available where the event actually occurred. Future actuality does not involve factual status – predicted events may or may

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not take place – but it is known whether the past event took place. Thus modals may be appropriate in future reference.

WILL functions in many ways like CAN, but the implications of actuality is often much stronger: *Yes I will, but I'm not going to* makes no sense. Like *could have, would have* may be interpreted in terms of the unreality either of the modality or the actuality: *I would have come, if John had been there* vs *I would have come if you'd asked me.* Thus there are at least two types of dynamic modality – those of CAN and WILL, dynamic modality always implying actuality when it relates to specific actions, although modals are not used where the actuality is clearly factual (i.e. past). Negative modality implies negative actuality.

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS   *See also abstract* 78–95

78–13   **Harrod, P. M. F.** Talk in junior and middle-school classrooms: an exploratory investigation. *Educational Review* (Birmingham), **29**, 2 (1977), 97–106.

Little published research has been conducted to date on the use of talk by teachers and children in primary schools. This paper describes an attempt to explore discourse in junior and middle-school classrooms using interaction analysis and intuitive contextual analysis to examine interactions between teachers and children in a variety of learning situations. It was found by analysing the language that there is excessive emphasis on lower-level cognitive activities, and that teachers tend to teach as though their tasks are more concerned with transmitting information than with encouraging thinking.

78–14   **Widdowson, H. G.** Description du langage scientifique. [A description of the language of science.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **129** (1977), 15–21.

The procedures and concepts of scientific research are regarded as constituting a secondary cultural system which is independent of primary cultures linked to actual societies, and the language of science is defined as existing independently of the specific linguistic means, the languages, used to convey it. The language of science may be seen as analogous with universal deep structure.

Three approaches towards providing a description of scientific language are considered: that of Halliday, which is purely quantitative and descriptive; the ideas of Lackstrom and Swales which focus on specific linguistic transformations and their function in communication; and the path taken by Alexander which leads into the realm of the philosophy and methodology of science and may be compared with the search for a universal grammar. [Bibliography.]

SOCIOLINGUISTICS

78-15   Dahlstedt, Karl-Hampus. Societal ideology and language cultivation: the case of Swedish. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language* (The Hague), **10** (1976), 17–50.

Language cultivation is defined as including any activity or action which aims consciously at influencing a language so that it improves and/or does not deteriorate. It may be official, semi-official or private. The connections between societal ideology and language cultivation in Sweden are discussed, with reference to the following ideologies: nationalism, Nordic regionalism, internationalism, traditionalism, rationalism and democratism. It is concluded that the characteristics of democratic language cultivation are tolerance and the desire for an open language, which is neither a barrier between different social groups or a factor which isolates one nation from others. [Notes; references.]

78-16   Hawkins, John A. The pragmatics of definiteness – Part 1. *Linguistische Berichte* (Braunschweig), **47** (1977), 1–27.

For anaphoric definite reference to be appropriate, there must be an object satisfying the description within the 'shared previous discourse set'. In 'immediate situation' use, a definite article instructs the hearer to locate the referent in the situation of utterance, whether or not it is visible. In 'larger situation' uses, the speaker appeals to the hearer's knowledge of entities existing in the non-immediate situation of utterance, which knowledge may be either specific or general knowledge of the referent.

The anaphoric use is similar to situational uses presupposing some specific knowledge of reference. However, some textual uses of *the* rely on shared knowledge about the general relationship between objects; this use involves associative anaphora, in which one NP triggers the associations with many others, e.g. *a car: the exhaust fumes, the wheels.* . . . In a larger situation use, the trigger is not an NP but the situation of utterance itself. These two uses are otherwise the same.

78-17   Jenkinson, T. K. and Weymouth, A. G. Pronominal usage, cohesion and explicitness in working-class speech: towards an evaluative technique. *Language and Speech* (Hampton Hill, Mddx), **19,** 2 (1976), 101–16.

In a sample of 30 working-class apprentices aged between 16 and 17 it has been shown that given a descriptive, narrative oral task the level of exophoric pronominal usage is minimal and does not detract from the overall cohesion of the text. The conclusions indicate a need to modify earlier notions concerning cohesion and pronominal reference in working-class speech.

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77–18   **Neubert, Albrecht.** What is sociolinguistics? Three postulates for sociolinguistic research. *Archivum Linguisticum* (Ilkley, Yorks), **7**, 2 (1976), 152–60.

At a time when questions concerning the relationship between language and society are increasingly posed, if not always clearly and uniformly answered, it is appropriate to review the nature of linguistics as a social science, to consider more particularly its subject matter and methodology, and to evaluate the explanatory and 'practical' power of overall linguistic findings.

78–19   **Švejcer, A. D.** Философские основы американской социолингвистики. [The philosophical bases of American sociolinguistics.] *Вопросы языкознания* (Moscow), **1** (1977), 16–27.

After a brief historical outline of the gradual recognition by American linguists of the importance of social factors in linguistic analysis, the major trends in current American sociolinguistics are described and criticised. The influence of behaviourism, and, more generally, positivism is seen as important, reflected in the concern with 'linguistic behaviour' rather than language, and in the refusal to search for causal relations between linguistic and social phenomena.

Three approaches are considered in some detail: symbolic interactionism (represented, for example, by Gumperz) is criticised for its lack of consideration of macro-sociological factors; ethno-methodology (as in the work of Garfinkel and Schegloff) is criticised for ignoring objective social categories, although the work done on conversation is praised; and approaches derived from Chomsky's generative linguistics (especially those of Hymes, Bickerton and Labov) are criticised for using a notion of 'competence' very similar to Chomsky's. The conclusion is drawn that the philosophical underpinnings of American sociolinguistics are confused, but the analytical procedures worked out by these schools are likely to be of use in a more soundly based approach.

PSYCHOLINGUISTICS

78–20   **Leont'ev, A. A.** Теория речевой деятельности на современном этапе и ее значение для обучеиия иностранцев русскому языку. [The present state of psycholinguistics and its significance for the teaching of Russian as a foreign language.] *Русский язык рубежом* (Moscow), **3** (1977), 57–61.

Following the scheme proposed by Mehler and Noizet, the development of psycholinguistics is divided into three stages. The tenets held in the first stage (characterised by the work of Osgood and Sebeok) and the second (Chomsky

and Miller) are found to be inadequate. The third stage, or 'new psycholinguistics', seen in the work of various scholars, marks a new stage in western psycholinguistics: most of its characteristics have been a part of Soviet psycholinguistics from the beginning. Starting from the psychological views of Vygotsky, Soviet psycholinguists consider language activity in the broad context of human behaviour. For them the subject of psycholinguistics is the various strategies of language use in behaviour. [Their chief postulates are summarised.] The main methodological principles derived from this position are as follows: communicativeness (all speech behaviour is motivated and purposeful); consciousness (based on a hierarchical view of psychological structure); assistance from the first language; problem resolution (the learning of knowledge which can be adapted, rather than stereotyped habits) and finally globality (language is not independent).

78–21 **Piquette, Elyse.** The translator's sensitivity to syntactic ambiguity – a psycholinguistics experiment. *Canadian Journal of Linguistics* (Toronto), **21**, 1 (1976), 95–106.

An experiment is described which called on bilingual subjects to detect the various interpretations of an ambiguous sentence in a translation task [description of the task, subjects, testing and scoring]. Results showed that ambiguity was detected only 45 per cent of the time. The difference between subjects' recognition of deep structure and surface structure ambiguities was not significant, nor did subjects find it easier to recognise SS than DS, as has been claimed. French subjects detected significantly more DS ambiguities in English than SS ambiguities. There does not seem to be a functional relationship between a translator's sensitivity to ambiguity and his linguistic skills. [Further data concerning the preferred readings of an ambiguous sentence is discussed. Sample sentences; bibliography.]

78–22 **Ruder, Kenneth, F. and others.** Effects of verbal imitation and comprehension training on verbal production. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research* (New York), **6**, 1 (1977), 59–72.

This study sought to determine whether some combination of imitation training and comprehension training was necessary to achieve verbal production or whether comprehension training alone was sufficient. Fifty-one first- and second-grade students were trained to imitate eight words (Spanish nouns) for which there were no referents. An additional set of eight words was trained in a comprehension task where overt verbal rehearsal was prohibited. Training modes were then reversed so that items initially trained in imitation were then trained in comprehension and vice versa. Results showed that initial compre-

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hension training did result in some verbal production, whereas initial imitation training, as expected, did not. A marked improvement in verbal production performance was observed when initial comprehension training was followed by imitation training. When initial imitation training was followed by comprehension training, verbal production also resulted but not to the degree which marked the comprehension-then-imitation sequence. Furthermore, comprehension training required more trials to reach a similar level of proficiency when it followed imitation training than when it preceded imitation. These data indicate that initial imitation training interferes with acquisition of subsequent comprehension and production responses and that the preferred training sequence is one which initially focuses on comprehension and follows this with verbal imitation.

78–23 **Titone, Renzo.** A humanistic approach to language behaviour and language learning. *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), **33**, 3 (1977), 309–17.

Much current dissatisfaction with methods of foreign-language teaching seems to derive from lack of an integrated and sufficiently flexible teaching/learning model. A synthetic approach is here proposed – the glossodynamic model. Its *starting point is the recognition that language behaviour is a stratificational and* hierarchical system of dynamic structures. Three distinct levels co-exist and co-operate, viz. (*a*) personality structure and dynamics in a contextual perspective; (*b*) cognitive processes, and (*c*) operant conditionings. The views expressed are closely related to those of 'humanistic psychologists'. [Descriptions of the constituent structures of the model: the 'deep structure' of language behaviour (tactic, strategic and ego-dynamic levels), and the 'surface structure' (communication abilities).] [References.]

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT OF CHILDREN

78–24 **Litowitz, Bonnie.** Learning to make definitions. *Journal of Child Language* (London), **4**, 2 (1977), 289–304.

The ability to define words by means of other words, which forms a part of many standardised tests, must be learned by a child. The nature of the 'definitional task' and the development of language responses (from children 4; 5 to 7; 5) are discussed in terms of a linguistic analysis of the definitional form and its semantic relations. Progress in definitional strategies by children moves along two continua: conceptually from the individually experiential to the socially shared; and syntactically from actual predicates through hypothetical predicates to adult definitional sentence frames. Implications include novel

elicitation techniques, psycholinguistically informed evaluation of direction and scoring measures of some common standardised verbal tests, and better understanding of the range of normal developments on one specific language task.

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78–25   Petretic, Patricia A. and Tweney, Ryan D. Does comprehension precede production? The development of children's responses to telegraphic sentences of varying grammatical adequacy. *Journal of Child Language* (London), **4**, 2 (1977), 201–9.

The comprehension ability of 36 children at three stages of telegraphic speech (mean length of utterance 1·45, 2·03, and 2·76 morphemes) wass assessed using active behavioural responses to declarative and imperative sentences. Both forms were varied in syntactic and semantic complexity. The responses were scored in terms of objects used by the child, whether or not the child's actions were appropriate, and whether or not appropriate verbalisation accompanied the actions. A significant increase in verbal and behavioural appropriateness with age was found for both imperative and declarative forms. Consistent with Shipley, Smith and Gleitman's (1969) results, advanced telegraphic speakers responded most often to adult stimulus forms. However, contrary to Shipley *et al.*'s findings, all children, even the earliest telegraphic speakers, were more accurate in responding to adult forms than to child forms, suggesting that ability to comprehend adult linguistic forms is present even at the earliest stages of telegraphic speech. The findings imply that re-evaluation of the development of comprehension ability in telegraphic speakers is necessary.

78–26   Richards, Meredith Martin. 'Come' and 'go' reconsidered: children's use of deictic verbs in contrived situations. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior* (New York), **15**, 6 (1976), 655–65.

A production-based method of investigating children's understanding of deictic verbs is described. Use of *come/go* and *bring/take* by 4- to 7-year-olds in experimentally controlled deictic situations is compared with the results of Clark and Garnica's (1974) comprehension method with the same verbs. The production data indicate that (1) age of acquisition of these verbs is considerably younger than previously reported, (2) *bring* and *take* are acquired later than the *come/go* pair, and (3) acquisition of these verbs involves mapping the appropriate words onto preconceived features of situations, rather than the abstraction of the semantic features underlying each verb.

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78-27   Snow, Catherine E. The development of conversation between mothers and babies. *Journal of Child Language* (London), **4**, 1 (1977), 1–22.

The speech of two mothers to their infants at several points between three and eighteen months of age was analysed. Simplicity of the speech, as measured by MLU, was about the same at all ages, and none of the other features of the mothers' speech style showed any abrupt change at the time the children started to talk. The changes that did occur started much earlier, at about seven months. These findings are incompatible with the explanation that mothers speak simply and redundantly in response to cues of attention and comprehension from the child listener. It is suggested that the mothers interacted with their infants using a conversational model, and that the changes in the mothers' speech reflect their children's growing ability to function as conversational partners.

78-28   Tyack, Dorothy and Ingram, David. Children's production and comprehension of questions. *Journal of Child Language* (London), **4**, 2 (1977), 211–24.

This study examined children's production and comprehension of questions, with the aim of discovering possible patterns in question acquisition. For the production study, questions were collected from 22 children aged 2; 0–3; 11. The data show a high frequency of *yes–no*, *what*, and *where* questions by age 2; 0. *Why* and *how* questions were infrequent but they increased with age. *Who* and *when* questions were rarely asked by children of any age. From the frequency data a rough chronological order of acquisition was inferred: *what, where, why, how, when.* In the comprehension study 100 children were tested, aged 3; 0–5; 5. The test controlled syntax and vocabulary and varied specific *wh-* question-words. The frequency of correct answers increased with the age of the children. When children made mistakes, their answers were not random but appeared to be following certain question-answering strategies. These included attention to semantic features of verbs and especially the placement of verbs in the sentence.

78-29   Weber, Jack L. and Weber, Susan E. Early acquisition of linguistic designations for time. *Language and Speech* (Hampton Hill, Mddx), **19**, 3 (1976), 276–84.

Time-related verbalisations of a three-year-old were analysed in order to gain insight into how children develop linguistic forms to designate time. This study went beyond mere descriptions of the time designators used by the child, and went on to discover what were the limits of his own understanding when adult

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time terminology was directed at him. Therefore, both the expressive and receptive modalities (output and input) were awarded equal attention. The development of a semantic aspect was inferred by noting gradual changes in both expressive and receptive proficiency that evolved over a period of 11 months. In other words, one small area of semantic evolution is isolated and defined. The results showed receptive proficiency ahead of expressive in the areas of Time Markers (e.g. *-ed* morpheme), Time Units (e.g. *day, year*) and Time Continuum. For the latter, two time slots at age 2;9 evolved into 10 time slots on the receptive continuum and 9 time slots on the expressive continuum by age 3;8.

BILINGUALISM *See also abstracts* 78–21, –84

78-30 Constable, D. Bilingualism in the United Republic of Cameroon. *English Language Teaching Journal* (London), **31**, 3 (1977), 249–53.

In 1961 the Federal Republic (now United Republic) of Cameroon became officially bilingual in the two received languages of English and French, having formerly been divided into French and British Cameroons. Whereas other countries, in attempting to establish bilingualism, make use of one language which is the mother tongue of the citizens, in Cameroon both French and English are foreign or second languages. Moreover, the functional load of the two languages is the same. The nation is predominantly agricultural, and the average farmer does not need two European languages as well as his vernacular and some vehicular language such as Pidgin or Fufulde. But the decision to provide universal primary education, with primary schools bilingual in English and French, implies the ideal of the bilingual individual (rather than the bilingual institution, which is far more common and more easily attained). Research will be needed to study the penetration and spread of the use of English in Francophone areas and of French in Anglophone areas, because imbalance will result in one-way bilingualism. A more realistic educational policy might be an intensive course in the second foreign language at the beginning of the secondary school phase, aimed at the educated élite.

78-31 Cummins, James. Cognitive factors associated with the attainment of intermediate levels of bilingual skills. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Mo), **61**, 1/2 (1977), 3–12.

Programmes designed to teach a second language to English-speaking children have in general proved more successful than those designed to teach English to non-English-speaking children. Under certain learning conditions, access to two languages can positively influence the development of some cognitive

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processes. Studies which reported an association between second-language learning and divergent thinking are briefly reviewed; they can be distinguished in terms of the 'additiveness' or 'subtractiveness' of the subjects involved, i.e. whether the L1 remains dominant or not. The level of competence achieved in both languages may be an important variable in explaining the effects of bilingualism on cognition.

A study is described which sampled three different bilingual learning situations, and which suggests that there may be a threshold level of bilingual competence which an individual must attain before his access to two languages can begin to influence positively his cognitive functioning. [References.]

PHONETICS

78–32   **Baldwin, J. R.** A formal analysis of the intonation of modern colloquial Russian. *Journal of Phonetics* (London), **4**, 2 (1974), 80–6, and **6**, 2 (1976), 77–85.

The first part of the article describes a system for the analysis of the intonation patterns in a corpus of unscripted colloquial Russian conversation. The corpus is organised in terms of speaker/utterance and segmented into pause units of two types: major (MAPU) and minor (MIPU). A tonic notation is used for the description of pitch characteristics. The A level of the corpus comprises transliteration and tonetic notation and the B level clarifies any pitch feature not amenable to description by the conventions of the A level. The second part of the article is largely devoted to examples of the system in operation.

MORPHOLOGY

78–33   **Derwing, Bruce L.** Morpheme recognition and the learning of rules for derivational morphology. *Canadian Journal of Linguistics* (Toronto), **21**, 1 (1976), 38–65.

An experiment was devised to clarify the role of semantic and phonetic similarity between word pairs in morpheme recognition, to examine to what extent the linguist's detailed morphemic analysis is realised psychologically by a learner, and how *formally* productive a derivational pattern must be before it is recognised as a *psychologically* productive rule.

Berko's morpheme recognition test was replicated, but was unsatisfactory, and a more valid measure of the naive subject's ability to identify morphological relationships was sought. Each subject was asked directly whether the first ('derived') word of a pair 'came from' the second ('base') word; they were then asked if they had ever thought about this before. Morpheme recognition seems

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very highly related to semantic similarity, but less to phonetic similarity. A word pair probably involves a morphological relationship if a majority of subjects express no doubt about it, and feel they have thought about it previously.

COMPARATIVE GRAMMAR *See abstracts* 78–7, –10, –34, –36

LEXICOLOGY

78–34 **Akulenko, V. V.** Лексические интернационализмы и методы их изучения. [Lexical internationalisms and associated methods of study.] *Вопросы языкознания* (Moscow), **6** (1976), 50–63.

The concept of internationalism is examined as a possible linguistic category, and an attempt is made to define its specificity. A definition of lexical internationlisms is offered which is then used to circumscribe the phenomena under study. These are root and derivational morphemes, words and fixed phrases which link two or more languages because of their meanings and forms. The concept of 'internationalism' is relative and seven different types of lexical internationalism are adduced and arranged in a matrix for the purposes of differentiation. Three basic methods of study are listed: the areal method, the synchrono-contrastive method, and methods of analysis of individual speech in contexts of bilingualism and multilingualism.

78–35 **Becker, Norbert.** Wertigkeit und Frequenz in der Lexis hochspezialisierter medizinischer Texte. [Valency and frequency in the vocabulary of highly specialised medical texts.] *Zeilsprache Deutsch* (Munich), **1** (1977), 21–7.

In the didactics of specialised languages there is a need for highly specialised word lists. This study offers a model for further research in presenting a lexical minimum of 350 words to be learnt by heart by a foreign medical student. The sample analysed consisted of 10 texts of 1000 words each. In order to determine the word hierarchy, the results of word-frequency counts are combined with those of the valency of words. The place of the words on this list further depends on how difficult it is to learn the word or to look it up in a dictionary. With the help of another text of 1000 words the reliability of the list is checked: reliability decreases only slightly towards the end of the list. This disadvantage could become negligible by quadruplicating the sample. The amount of work necessary to make such a list is relatively small; and lists of this type can easily be integrated into more comprehensive indexes.

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78–36   **Menac, Antica.** Frazeologizmi oko riječi 'kraj/konac' u različitim jezicima. [Phrases involving the word 'end' in various languages.] *Strani jezici* (Zagreb), **5**, 1/2 (1976), 35–8.

A series of phrases involving the word *end* in Serbo-Croatian, English, French, German, Russian and Italian are considered. The phrases are arranged in groups with the same meaning in each language, from simple structures of noun+preposition (*at the end*, etc.) to more complex clusters (*to come to an untimely end, to the ends of the earth*, etc.). Similarities of usage in these various European languages are thus strikingly illustrated.

LEXICOGRAPHY

78–37   **Šanskij, N. M. and Bystrova, E. A.** О принципах составления учебного фразеологического словаря русского языка для иностранцев. [On the principles of compiling a phraseological dictionary for foreigners learning Russian.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), **3** (1977), 69–73.

The learner must acquire a certain number of set phrases in order to understand and use Russian. Of the possible types of dictionary to help him, this article is devoted to the bilingual type. Such a dictionary should be not only a source of information, but rather a sort of textbook. The selection of entries is difficult. A limiting criterion is that place should be given only to phrases whose meaning is not derivable from their elements. Polite formulae should be included as should phrases of high communicative value. Frequency is usually a safe guide; however, in the absence of statistical data, informants were asked to assess the frequency of different set phrases, though there are weaknesses in this approach. The presentation of entries is also a problem: the solution suggested is to arrange them by the first word – disadvantages can be overcome by an index. Entries must also include grammatical information: the limitations on the use of particular phrases (only singular, only perfective, only with an inanimate object, etc.) and their collocations. The difficulties outlined show the need for further research.

DIALECTOLOGY

78–38   **Van der Elst, Gaston.** DWA und Wortgeographie. [DWA and word geography.] *Germanistische Linguistik* (Marburg), **3/4** (1976), 77–99.

The DWA (*Deutscher Wortatlas*, German Linguistic Atlas) was completed in 1973. The theoretical framework of reference developed by Mitzka has proved to be no longer adequate. What useful function, if any, can linguistic word maps

fulfil in current research? The most satisfactory way of looking at the DWA is to view it, in analogy to phonological geography, as a graphic model of the distribution of dialects on the level of the signeme. As to questions concerning the history of words and language, these have to be dealt with on the basis of extra-linguistic data. There are some cases of differentiation or contamination of meaning which can be treated by relying exclusively on the material provided by the DWA. But the maps often contain the basic data for questions of this kind. Description of linguistic strata and their geographical distribution can, in principle, take their point of departure from the DWA. The analysis of linguistic fields would be restricted to a limited number of object-orientated systems, e.g. names for family relationships.

Further word maps will have to rely on more detailed questionnaires, so that one can go beyond questions concerning the structure of semantic and lexicological fields in so far as these depend on our ordering of objects. Recommendations are: (1) to use tests which allow for a description of semantic content through their connotations, (2) to apply the semantic-differential-method, and (3) to use a method of questioning which proceeds from situational description. Much preliminary work on the technique of questioning remains to be done.

TRANSLATION   *See also abstract* 78–21

78–39   Harris, Brian. The importance of natural translation. *Working Papers on Bilingualism* (Toronto), **12** (1977), 96–114.

Natural translation (NT) is defined as 'the translation done by bilinguals in everyday circumstances without special training for it'. The importance of NT is emphasised for the whole paradigm within which research on translatology (the scientific study of translation) should be done. Some tentative research is cited.

78–40   Hutchinson, Peter. Improving the standard of translation. *Modern Languages* (London), **58**, 1 (1977), 24–31.

The best translations from German produced in recent years have been completed by academics rather than professional translators. Academics (including school-teachers and all graduate linguists) should therefore be encouraged by putting more emphasis on translation as a skill, and according it higher status in university courses. Teaching methods might be modified to involve students more wholeheartedly than at present in the theory and practice of translation. [Suggestions for supplementing the conventional translation class are put forward: these include working on bad translations; comparing two versions of a classic; preparing two different translations of the same passage, one as a crib,

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one as a free imitation; and the use of annotated passages.] Advice on the sort of area in which would-be amateur translators could profitably work when they leave university is also needed. The literary short form – poems, epigrams, short stories – is ideal, and not usually undertaken by professionals.

78–41 Trost, K. Übersetzungswissenschaftliche Terminologie und Übersetzungsanalyse (am Beispiel der russisch-deutschen Übersetzung). [Translation terminology and analysis (exemplified from Russian–German translation.] *Folia Linguistica* (The Hague), **10**, 3/4 (1976), 197–216.

Translation is mostly carried out without any exact definition of terms. This article is an attempt to set up certain terms and use them for analysing translations. A translation must strive to maintain the identity of content (*Inhaltsidentität*) between the original and its rendering. As far as possible there should be a numerical correspondence between the units of the original and the translation. This is not always possible, e.g. Russian *sutki* 'day and night'. The items translated should as far as possible be in the same position in the original and the translation except for obligatory changes in order, e.g. inversion of the verb in German. If there is a numerical correspondence between the semantically full words (nouns, verbs, etc.) of the original and the translation then there is identity of content. Apart from obligatory changes, e.g. in word order, there are also non-obligatory changes which can be made in translating. There is the use of optional grammatical variants, such as passive or active, which do not alter the meaning of the sentence, only its grammatical form. The content may be refined by the use of extra words in the translation which merely makes explicit what is clearly shown by the context. If the use of extra words is not implicit in the context then the sense has been changed (*Inhaltserweiterung*). The same effect can be achieved by a reduction in the number of words (*Inhaltsverkürzungen*). If words are changed then this can alter the sense (*Sinnänderung*) and context (*Sachverhaltsänderung*). If the content is changed, the work is no longer a translation. The translation style of an epoch or individual consists of a selection from these possibilities.

STYLISTICS

78–42 Pumpyanskii, A. L. Функциональный стиль научной и технической литературы. [The functional style of scientific and technical literature.] *Вопросы языкознания* (Moscow), **2** (1977), 87–97.

A functional style in technical and scientific literature is not only not stylistically 'neutral' but is also common to all languages. Whereas a written language has

its origin in the spoken language, a 'technical/scientific' language has its origins in the written language. Moreover, a technical/scientific language is the product of a collective. It is called by the author 'formal-logical'. Much of the paper is devoted to a discussion of the properties of this style in terms of its phonetic system, lexical composition and grammatical structure [details].

SEMIOTICS

78–43   Deely, John N. The doctrine of signs: taking form at last. *Semiotica* (The Hague), **18**, 2 (1976), 171–93.

The article is a discussion of Eco's *Theory of semiotics* (1976), which is taken to be a significant contribution to studies in semiotics in general. It is argued that the science of semiotics must have a proper clarification of its foundation principles if it is to develop in a responsible and orderly way. The author concentrates on the critique of the alleged adequacy of the sign-function as a translation of the more fundamental notion of the *signum*, and argues that the theory of codes that Eco proposes, with its fundamental contrast between units of nature on the one hand, and units of experience and culture on the other, transcends this critique and is the book's most important contribution.

78–44   Gray, Bennison. The 'second principle' of language. *Language Sciences* (Bloomington, Ind), **45** (1977), 26–8.

The paper discusses the Saussurian principles of the arbitrariness of the sign, and the linear nature of the signifier. It is suggested that those who seek a positive principle of language universals advocate either universal linearity or universal subordination, but it is argued that language is neither exclusively linear nor exclusively hierarchical. The theoretical implications of 'co-ordination' are considered, as a direct challenge to both these traditional views.

78–45   Panfilov, V. Z. О гносеологических аспектах проблемы языкового знака. [On some epistemological aspects of the problem of the linguistic sign.] *Вопросы языкознания* (Moscow), 2 (1977), 3–14.

The position that the linguistic sign, defined as a material object referring to another object, forms the basis for abstract thought, is contrasted favourably with the view that language is a reflection of thought. To this end, a distinction is made between abstract thought and concrete, perceptual, thought, which are reflected respectively in the left and right hemispheres of the brain. The developmental connections of language and intellect are also cited as evidence for the author's position.

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Although the sign is agreed to be arbitrary with respect to the objects it refers to, the system of signs representing particular areas of reality is argued to be isomorphic to the organisation of that reality: examples cited include reduplication of stems as expression of plurality and iterative aspect in many languages. Finally, the question of whether language has intersubjective reality is discussed: the position that it does (represented by Popper) is contrasted with a materialist position (represented by Marx and Lenin), and it is argued that the nature of communication lends decisive support to the latter.

78–46   **Solncev, V. M.** Языковой знак и его свойства. [The linguistic sign and its properties.] *Вопросы языкознания* (Moscow), **2** (1977), 15–28.

An argument is presented in favour of a unilateral conception of the linguistic sign, whereby the sign is defined as a sequence of sounds, as opposed to a bilateral conception in which the sign is considered as the conjunction of sound and meaning. The fundamental properties of the sign are defined as its material nature and the fact that it has meaning, without which the material object would not be a sign.

Detailed consideration is given to cases where signs represent fantastic objects (leprechauns, centaurs, etc.): this is claimed to be evidence against the bilateral conception of the sign, as there is nothing outside of the meaning to which the sign can refer. In the unilateral conception of the sign, the sequence of sounds refers to mental representations, which are the only form of existence of such objects. Further consideration is given to the arbitrary nature of the sign, a position which is defended against possible objections, which are only of a marginal nature. The bilateral conception of the sign is said to run the risk of degenerating into conventionalism when coupled with the doctrine of the arbitrary nature of the sign.