Language and linguistics

74-144   Ikegami, Y. A set of basic patterns for the semantic structure of the verb. *Linguistics* (The Hague), **117** (1973), 15–58.

Evidence is presented to show that concrete motion (a change in locus) and abstract motion (a change in possessorship or condition) share a common set of structural patterns. Constraints on the linguistic representation of change are identified and interpreted in terms of Affected and Goal, reference points, Theme, Concrete and Abstract, Animate and Inanimate, Agent and Non-agent, possible bi-valency and structural patterns for causatives. A description of how these structural patterns are realised in English and in Japanese is attempted in terms of representational verbs. In addition to structural patterns for expressing change, or a transition between prior and succeeding states, a set of patterns for expressing the states of existence, possession and condition, is also indicated. The diachronic emergence of these patterns is considered in relation to a proposed set of universals. [References.]

LINGUISTIC DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS

74-145   Fillmore, C. May we come in? *Semiotica* (The Hague), **9,** 2 (1973), 97–116.

An attempt to demonstrate, through reference to the title sentence of the article, the kinds of knowledge which speakers possess about the formal structure and appropriate situational uses of sentences. Previous demonstrations of the scope of linguistic description and explanation such as Chomsky (1956) have not viewed sentences in terms of their potential anchoring in a communication situation.

Each lexical item in the title sentence is examined for its pragmatic as well as semantic and grammatical implications, and a summary is made of the various kinds of facts which need to be included in a fully developed system of linguistic description. These include: (1) the linguistic characterisation for each lexical item of possible grammatical constructions in which it can occur, grammatical processes to which it is subject and which it determines, and information about speech act conditions, conversation rules and idiosyncratic facts necessary for semantic interpretation; (2) the provision of an apparatus for characterising the maximally abstract level and mapping such deep structure representations into surface sentences; (3) principles for deriving the complete semantic and pragmatic description of a sentence; (4) a theory of communication acts in terms of which the principles of (3) are empowered to provide a full account of the development of discourse; (5) a theory of discourse which accounts for the rule of sentences in conversational and discursive contexts; and (6) a theory of 'natural logic' by means of which such judgements as the success of an argument can be deduced.

74-146 Hetzron, Robert. Surfacing. *Studii italiani di linguistica teorica ed applicata* (Padua), **2**, 1/2 (1973), 2–71.

The hearer perceives a sentence as a linear string of lexical and morphological elements which, together with syntactically relevant prosodemes, enable him to determine its structure and meaning; this string is the surface structure to be generated by the grammar. Conditions governing the insertion of parenthetical expressions and on the variability of word order (particularly in inflected languages like Hungarian) reveal bracketings of the elements in a surface structure. The derivation of these bracketings from underlying configurations is by the final cycle process of 'surfacing'. Surfacing is triggered by the phonological rule of morpheme spelling (hence, some syntactic operations follow phonological rules): where this results in the overt marking of syntactic function the category node directly dominating the morpheme is raised to S, intervening

structure being deleted. After the obligatory or optional reshuffling of the order of constituents all intervening structure is deleted to leave S directly dominating a set of terminal category nodes. Ambiguous strings contain a choice of more than one category node dominating the ambiguous element(s) in the structure. [References. Many typographical errors.]

74-147 Lee, D. A. Stative and case grammar. *Foundations of Language* (Dordrecht), **10**, 4 (1973), 545–68.

Lakoff has claimed a bipartite division of all V into the subcategories non-stative and stative, and Fillmore that these subcategories are captured in a case grammar by the presence or absence (respectively) of Agentive in the case frame for V. Lakoff presented a set of tests for determining into which subcategory a given V falls, and it is shown in the present paper that there are V which pass some of the tests but fail others, making their subcategorisation with respect to stativeness equivocal – which suggests that the bipartite division is incorrect. Instead, a tripartite division is proposed, subcategorising V into 'activities', V which occur with sister Agentives, 'events' which have no associated Agentive but are represented in deep structure by an INCHOATIVE asymmetrically commanding a 'static' V, and 'statics' which have neither an associated Agentive nor a superordinate INCHOATIVE predicate. Fillmore, as an interpretivist, proposes that the lexicalisation of V is conditioned by the case frame; here, on the other hand, is a generative semanticist proposal that V dominates a semantic element, and that lexicalisation may be preceded by transformations like RAISING in a case grammar. [References.]

74-148 Mellema, Paul. A brief against case grammar. *Foundations of Language* (Dordrecht), **11**, 1 (1974), 39–76.

A detailed examination of Fillmore's case grammar is presented and a comparison made with the standard theory grammar. Fillmore's

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claim that the presence or absence of Agentive case is equivalent to a subcategorisation of V into non-stative and stative (respectively) is invalidated by many counter-examples. There seems to be no possibility of adequately formulating a subject selection rule, required in Fillmore's grammar. It cannot assign prepositions any more efficiently than the standard theory grammar. The suppletion of lexical entries to reduce the size of the lexicon, even if possible, is of no value because the surface forms will require idiosyncratic spelling rules. But most important: there is no need for case grammar because the semantics of NP roles is captured by the categorisation of NP variables in Katz's recent semantic readings for verbs. Hence, standard theory can account for all the data described by case grammar, and more besides, from the distinction between holistic and partitive locatives to the entailments of pro-positions. Moreover, not only is the standard theory the more explicit theory, but on Fodor's psychological reality hypothesis is preferable to case grammar. [References.]

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

74-149   Grieve, Robert. Definiteness in discourse. *Language and Speech* (Hampton Hill, Middlesex), **16**, 4 (1973), 365-72.

A recent study has attempted to relate definiteness to topicalisation. In an utterance with two nominals, there is a tendency to distinguish the nominals in the topic from the nominal in the comment by marking the former with *the* and the latter with *a* (e.g. *the boy hit a girl*), for in discourse the speaker must presuppose of his listener knowledge of topic (*the* + noun), and ignorance of comment (*a* + noun) (where 'topic' is defined as the person, object or event with which the utterance is primarily concerned, and 'comment' as the in-formation conveyed about that person, object or event). However, since this clearly assumes that use of *the* is related to knowledge, and *a* to lack of knowledge, the present study attempts to test these assumptions. The results of two experiments support the hypotheses.

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SOCIOLINGUISTICS

74-150   Shteling, D. A. Целенаправленность речи и категория наклонения. [The purposefulness of speech and the category of mood.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), **3** (1973), 64-70.

The functional approach to language (cf. Bühler's distinction: expressive, appellative and communicative functions of language) is crucial. The speech situation, involving speaker and hearer, is reflected in the linguistic opposition of first and second person to third person, to a lesser extent by the distinction between first and second person. The speech act is always the speaker's act, reflected in the egocentricity of demonstrative systems. Expressive language, where the hearer has no role, is part of the linguistic system, but is maximally non-grammatical, that is, phraseological. Interjections are thus not parts of speech (no categorical meaning, flectional forms, syntactic relations with rest of sentence). Mood is irrelevant in expressive language.

In the speaker–hearer situation, the communicative–appellative distinction is crucial. Appellative language addresses the speaker's will to the hearer, typically requiring his non-verbal response. Traditional grammar treats communicative language, and its analyses fail to account for other uses [examples and diagram]. The imperative is not a mood. The two-way indicative–subjunctive mood distinction operates only in communicative language use, where the relation of the utterance to reality is important, and where the role of the hearer, though less active than that of the speaker, is still crucial, in particular in that the speaker wants to be understood [diagram]. [Bibliography.]

PSYCHOLINGUISTICS

74-151 Marshall, John C. and Newcombe, Freda. Patterns of paralexia: a psycholinguistic approach. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research* (New York), **2**, 3 (1973), 175–99.

Dyslexic problems as described in the literature on the subject are classified under the headings of *visual, semantic* and *grapheme–phoneme impairment*. Visual impairment is a main cause of dyslexia; it involves confusion of visually similar letters, e.g. 'p' and 'd' with 'b', and words, e.g. *apple* → able, *bat* → hat. Semantic (or 'deep') impairment is more rare, and occurs when the 'central' part of the lexicon has been disturbed. Errors bear a semantic relationship to the stimulus item, e.g. repetition of the stimulus *cat* produced in turn the responses 'mice', 'dog', 'rat'. Grapheme–phoneme (or 'surface') impairment relates to the inability to remember the phonemes represented by different letters, or failure to group sequences of letters into syllables. The form and severity of this type of impairment depends on the relationship of script and sound, hence the reading problems of Japanese schoolchildren are much fewer than those of schoolchildren in Western countries.

[Detailed data from six dyslexic subjects, two in each category, all suffering from missile injuries, is presented with appropriate neurological and psychological details.] Dyslexic mistakes are related to the error patterns of 'normal' adult readers and children learning to read [details and diagrams]. Trends which future research should take are indicated. [Extensive bibliography.]

74-152 Oller, John W., Jr. Induction, mind, and contextualisation of materials to be learned. *ITL* (Leuven), **18** (1972), 9–29.

A general psycholinguistic theory of induction is presented, in which learning is defined as the operation of induction and substitution to generate a grammar of expectancy. From perceptual experiments with very young infants a principle of induction is inferred and presented formally as a recursively applicable rule. The rule of

induction explains the child's developing ability to achieve correct expectations about objects and contexts: it is through achieving successive reductions in the amount of information to be dealt with that cognitive growth occurs. A rule of substitution is also formally stated to account for creativity. Extrapolations from the theory are claimed to predict observations about the effects of context on the processing of verbally coded information in terms of transfer and interference. It is argued that on formal grounds pragmatically contextualised materials will be easier to learn than syntactically motivated materials.

74-153 Waryas, Carol L. Psycholinguistic research in language intervention programming: the pronoun system. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research* (New York), **2**, 3 (1973), 221–37.

A linguistic analysis of the pronoun system is presented in terms of binary features: semantic (Speaker, Listener, Other, Singular) and syntactic (Subjective, Reflective, Possessive, Replacive). The fusion of semantic feature sets in plural forms is considered, and the order of semantic and syntactic feature specification and lexical entries in determining pronoun usage is summarised in table form. A hypothetical order of development is proposed for the acquisition of the pronoun system (semantic features being acquired before syntactic ones), and data is advanced to support this. Suggestions are made regarding the possible relationship of the pronoun system to other areas of language (determiners and demonstratives), and proposals are presented for the development of pronoun training procedures within the context of language training programmes.

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT OF CHILDREN

74–154   Lentin, Laurence. Interaction adultes–enfants au cours de l'acquisition du langage. Un exemple: Étude contrastive du langage de deux enfants entre 3 et 4 ans et de celui de leurs parents (milieux socio-culturels différents). [Adult–child interaction during language acquisition. An example: Contrastive study of the language of two children between 3 and 4 and of that of their parents (from different socio-cultural milieux).] *Études de linguistique appliquée*, nouvelle série (Paris), **9** (1973), 10–50.

This is one example from an on-going research programme covering 61 children now in its fourth year. To date no significant differences have been shown to be associated with sex characteristics. Differences in language acquisition correlate with differences in socio-cultural classification. (A description of the language characteristics examined in principle appeared in *Études de linguistique appliquée*, No. 4.) The present study used a corpus of 20 recordings of 20 minutes each of interviews with Thomas and Brigitte during the year when they were between the ages of 3·3 and 4·3 years. Also examined were two 60-minute conversations between the researcher and the respective parents. The texts were then examined for characteristics: length of utterance of parents of both children; complexity of syntax of both sets of parents and the occurrences of markers of syntactic complexity in the utterances of all six subjects.

As Thomas was able but uncommunicative in speech, a control was also studied – a boy who spoke fluently but was much less able to solve problems. Brigitte was referred as a class problem because she was hyperloquacious. Strong influences were Brigitte's sister (five years senior) and Thomas's mother, who unintentionally encouraged him to be non-communicative. [Tables of occurrences of syntactic complexity markers, of number of words per utterance, averages, transcripts of interviews with parents.] The already clear gap between the two children in their ability to handle language grew larger during the year under review. The conclusion is that the

differences are not attributable to progress beyond or behind a norm but to different ways of operating the verbal system and, in consequence, the mental system.

74-155   Halliday, M. A. K. A sociosemiotic perspective on language development. *Bulletin of The School of Oriental and African Studies* (London), **37**, 1 (1974), 98–118.

Certain observations are made on a child's learning of its mother tongue. Before a child meaningfully concatenates two or more recognisable morphemes he can express meaning systematically by gesture and prosody. During Phase I, 9–16½ months, in response to the sociosemiotic system in which he finds himself, the child (Nigel) invents a communication system having a one-to-one relation between content and expression. His language can be described in terms of four functions typical of the sociosemiotic system: instrumental, regulatory, interactional and personal. During Phase II, 16½–24 months, Nigel maps his earlier bistratal system into an adult language system with semantic, lexicogrammatical and phonological levels; and concurrently develops two more language functions, heuristic and imaginative. At the beginning of Phase II each utterance maintains a single function, but as he matures utterances become plurifunctional. Phase II is a transitional period between his prototype Phase I language and the adult language; hence, during this time Nigel systematically distinguishes the manipulative (pragmatic) functions instrumental and regulatory by rising intonation from all other functions, for which he uses falling intonation. In inventing a linguistic system the child is responding to the sociosemiotic system about him, which he learns about by mapping his language system into it.

DIACHRONIC LINGUISTICS

74-156 Sologub, A. I. Лингвогеографические данные как источник для изучения истории языковых явлений. [Linguistic–geographic data as a source for the study of the history of linguistic phenomena.] *Вопросы языкознания* (Moscow), **6** (1973), 92–100.

Historical dialectology requires the study of both earlier texts and data from modern dialects. The dialect data must be complete in the areal coverage of the traditional language area, and must show the structural value of individual phenomena within the system of the given dialect as a whole. Russian dialect atlases satisfy these requirements, and dialect data are assuming the predominance that formerly attached to textual material.

Dialect features may characterise only a well-defined locality, and as such are of prime importance for relating linguistic features and territorial history [examples]. They may also occur sporadically over a wider area (or the total area): such features may be archaisms or innovations, the latter reflecting common structural tendencies or the influence of the standard language [examples]. The intensity of a feature in different territories can be an important indicator. Exclusive use of one variant in a given territory usually indicates that this is the original territory of this feature [examples]. A feature normally occurs most regularly in the area of its origin, while it will be less regular (either restricted or generalised) in areas to which it has subsequently spread [examples]. Transitional dialects and relic areas may give an indication of intermediate stages of historical development [examples]. Different dialects may show different realisations of the same structural tendency [examples]. Differences in the intensity of variants may indicate differences in their respective age [examples]. Several controversial points and hitherto unsubstantiated hypotheses have been settled by dialect geography, including cases where textual material is not available.

TRANSLATION

74-157 Tabernig de Pucciarelli, Elsa. La traducción: enfoque
lingüístico. [A linguistic approach to translation.] *Babel*
(Gerlingen, Germany), **19**, 3 (1973), 117–26.

Advances in formal linguistics have had repercussions in the science
of translation, previously neglected as a discipline. Translation is
now regarded as an operation carried out between systems, without
postulating any universality of experience which would make for
any necessary overlap between those systems. Modern linguistics
has tended to dismiss the possibility of 'total translation'. [Review
of the philosophic background.] Since translation requires total
comprehension of the message and fluent skills in the target language,
translation should ideally be into the native language only. Factors
influencing translatability are cultural–political, geographical and
linguistic distance between the original and the target language.
Research has disclosed some linguistic universals, but the translator's
main problems consist in identifying items and structures which
correspond pairwise in two languages and in dealing with cases of
non-equivalence between two languages by lexical suppletion,
amplification and morphological and syntactic adaptation to the
requirements of the target language. Further problems are dis-
ambiguation and the appreciation of differences in connotational
structure from language to language.

74-158 Villa Villegas, Tito. Fundamentos metodológicos lin-
güísticos de la interpretación de textos. [Methodological
and linguistic bases of text interpretation.] *Lenguaje* (Cali,
Colombia), **1**, 4 (1972), 21–39.

Theoretical and practical problems of teaching interpretation of
specialist texts in a foreign language are discussed. The approach
to the discipline should be inductive, and based on the sentence
as the unit of analysis. The act of translation into one's native
language involves the identification of relations and units partly

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modelling the world, which are common to the source and target languages, i.e. the relations inherent in underlying structure. The surface structures of both the foreign and native language express the same universal content, or deep structure.

Relations existing between sentences and larger units, and between sentences and constituents are defined. The isolation of the immediate constituents of a deep structural 'sentence' (equated with head noun(s) and lexical verb) is regarded as being of fundamental importance to the interpreter of the text, in that deep structures are untransformed (and therefore permit of maximum information recall) and unambiguous. 'A reader who reads according to this procedure [the said isolation] will be able to provide a foundation for the other elements in the sentence and never make a mistake.' The remaining procedure is to construct abstract relations/elements underlying the other ('restricting') elements in a sentence of the source language, and to search out the realisation of such elements in the target language; this procedure avoids simple calquing – the result of the direct type of translation discouraged in the first part of this article. [Conclusion. Bibliography.]

SEMIOTICS

74-159 Sebeok, T. A. Problems in the classification of signs. *Acta Linguistica* (Budapest), **23**, 1/2 (1973), 7–17.

The subject-matter of semiotics is seen as the exchange of messages and the system of signs that underlie them. An attempt at a reasonably holistic categorisation of signs must concern itself with structure, function and history. A synchronic exploration of some of the functional aspects of sign systems is attempted in terms of possible sources of signs and communication channels. The concept of multi-channel communication is explored, and leads into a consideration of macro-structures (myths, the verbal arts, etc.) and the Soviet concept of secondary modelling systems (ideological models that constrain communication possibilities).