

LINGUISTIC DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS

73-225 **Desherieva, T. I.** К вопросу об отношении эргативной конструкции предложения к номинативной, генитивной, дативной конструкциям. [On the question of the relationship of the ergative construction of a sentence to nominative, genitive and dative constructions.] *Вопросы языкознания* (Moscow), 5 (1972), 42-8.

Linguists have characterized ergative constructions in various ways. Disagreement also exists about the voice of transitive verbs in an ergative construction and about the origin of ergative constructions. The writer considers that an ergative sentence construction is one of several non-nominative constructions. It is a two-element sentence comprising a subject (ergative case) and a predicate (transitive verb). The agreement of the verbal predicator with the direct object is its chief characteristic. It has transitive meaning and consequently active voice; it cannot be passive.

In an ergative form, construction type one, the subject may be expressed by an oblique case. In type two, the subject may, for example, be in the ergative case and have an intransitive verb. Languages where transitive expressions are mainly conveyed by construction type one are also known as ergative, whereas those where they are mainly conveyed by type two are nominative. The basic structural properties of a nominative construction are described: the subject is in the nominative; the predicator may be transitive or intransitive; the direct complement may be in the accusative case or in an oblique case; the main direction of the process is between subject and verb. The principal distinctions between ergative and nominative structures are listed, as well as their common features. Genitive and dative constructions with a subject in an oblique case and a transitive verb belong to ergative form construction type one. Constructions with an analogical subject and an intransitive verb belong to ergative form construction type two or have no relationship to an ergative construction. **ADN**

- 73-226 Hermanns, Fritz.** Descriptions of deep structures are translations into artificial languages. *Linguistics* (The Hague), **99** (1973), 71-7.

It is misleading to talk about describing deep structures if these do not exist. If they do exist they are simply modelled, never described. What are sometimes called descriptions are in fact translations of the sentences for which they stand, retranslation usually being called 'transformation'. The target language for the translation is an artificial language, invented for the purpose. Much discussion in linguistics has been about the construction of this language. Discussions about what the author terms 'deep languages' should concern their usefulness. The questions cannot be answered objectively or scientifically but practically. It would be useful if there were agreement on a standard deep language for linguistics, and there are grounds for looking to the language of the predicate calculus to fulfil this role. [Bibliography.]

ADN

- 73-227 Milner, Jean-Claude.** Écoles de Cambridge et de Pennsylvanie: deux théories de la transformation. [The schools of Cambridge and Pennsylvania: two transformational theories.] *Languages* (Paris), **8**, 29 (1973), 98-117.

The paper sets out to compare the theory of transformational grammar put forward by Chomsky and his students with that proposed by Harris and his students. Although the starting-point for the study is consideration of the treatment of paraphrase within each theory, this problem can be looked at only against the full account of the two theories. The notion of 'transformation' is closely observed as it is used in each theory, and the extent of differences and identity in the interpretation of the notion established. In general the two schools of transformational grammar make use of paraphrase for different ends. While Pennsylvania (the followers of Harris) uses paraphrase as an operational test, permitting such questions to be put as 'which structures are in transformational relationship?', the Cambridge school (the followers of Chomsky) concerns itself almost solely with

the determination of the transformations which relate structures, these being culled from increasingly wide sources. Pennsylvania defines transformations on the basis of classes; Cambridge predicates them. [Description of the stages of a Harris-type analysis, and of the principal elements of a Chomsky-type definition.] Aspects of the two approaches may be compared and shown to be similar. [Table.]

There are fundamental differences in the tasks of an intensional theory and of an extensional one. The former has the more difficult task, for it must do more than simply determine related structures: it must specify rules for their sufficient analysis. [Examples.] The author considers the theories on certain empirical points, namely: as a device for noting structure by stringing lexically-determined variables; the ordering of transformations; transformations as operations on sequences of elements; transformations as a means of analysis; the pairing of sequences. [Examples and discussion. Bibliography.]

[The whole of this issue of *Languages* is devoted to an assessment of paraphrase as treated by Harris, Hiž and Chomsky.] **ADN**

73-228 Postal, Paul M. Some further limitations of interpretive theories of anaphora. *Linguistic Inquiry* (Cambridge, Mass), **3**, 3 (1972), 349-71.

In replying to a defence of interpretive theories of anaphora the author reviews the treatment of anaphoric phenomena through interpretive rules. He considers in particular the work of Jackendoff, *Some Rules of Semantic Interpretation for English* (unpublished doctoral dissertation, MIT 1969) on the relations between co-referential pronouns, and Dougherty, 'An interpretive theory of pronominal reference' in *Foundations of Language* 5 (1965), on a theory of co-referentiality which requires interpretive rules that operate on the surface structure of sentences, or on certain structures prior to the application of some late transformations. [These are discussed with example analyses.]

The author assumes the reader's familiarity with Grinder and Postal, 'Missing antecedents', *Linguistic Inquiry* 2 (1971), and discusses in detail the criticisms by Bresnan in the same journal. The

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discussion deals principally with identity of sense anaphora manifested by verb phrase deletion, the argument being extended to forms such as pronominalization with *one* and *such*. [Example analyses and bibliography.]

ADF **ADN**

73-229 Shapiro, Michael. Explorations into markedness. *Language* (Baltimore, Md), **48**, 2 (1972), 343-64.

Although the major daily concern of linguistics is the formulation of rules, a more difficult task is to discover the universal law, underlying language as a whole, of which specific rules are instances. The paper is a study of the feasibility of explaining selected linguistic rules by appeal to universals couched in terms of markedness and complementarity (taken primarily as the logical concept of an explanatory thema). Rules are proposed which would generate a particular child's pronunciation of certain words: the shape of the masculine substantival genitive plural desinence (vowel+glide) in contemporary standard Russian. [These rules are then taken up in a discussion of the necessary conditions on universals and examples are introduced from Spanish and Old Balto-Slavic. Bibliography.]

(491.7) **ADN** **AJT** (460)

SOCIOLINGUISTICS

73-230 Bronstein, Arthur J., L. J. Raphael and E. M. Bronstein. The swinging sociolinguistic pendulum. *Illinois Schools Journal* (Urbana, Ill), **52** (1972), 5 pp.

Two aspects of the problem are discussed: the place of ghetto speech in the linguistic spectrum and the attitudes towards its use. Until recently the term 'dialect', even when not used pejoratively, rarely comprehended social, as opposed to regional, community speech. The results of preliminary investigation by linguists, sociologists and psychologists are evident in the changing views towards Black English. [The two approaches to Black English are described: the first based on a *deficit model*, the second on a *difference model*.] A principle of the difference model is that a speaker's cognitive abilities

do not depend on his dialect but on his linguistic competence and his ability to use his dialect creatively. Though this is the basis for many training programmes, there are various schools of thought about the goals and methods of these courses. Negative attitudes to the language and culture of minority groups in the United States are strong, but there is substantial support for adding another dialect to, rather than eliminating or changing, the native dialect. There is a need to define educational objectives in terms of the goal of the group as well as in terms of the goal of the dominant culture, for attempts to replace non-standard forms with socially preferred ones do *not* develop an ability to use language more effectively.

The situation of the American Black is not analagous to that of immigrant groups of the last hundred years. The pressures felt by the Germans and Irish to conform to mainstream speech and to rise socially were not experienced in the same way by Black communities, and the ghetto language forms have become more or less stabilized. It may be objected that general acceptance of this dialect will continue the social and economic depression of minority groups. However, linguistic loyalties are no less deep than the social commitment from which they spring. It may be that in future the ghetto student (Black, Puerto Rican or American Indian) will be initially instructed and taught to read in his own dialect. [Bibliography.]

(420) AFK AMF 973

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT OF CHILDREN

73-231 Elemento, Fernanda. Fattori intellettuali nella produzione linguistica di bambini di nove-dieci anni. [Intellectual factors in the productive language of nine- and ten-year-old children.] *Studi italiani di linguistica teorica ed applicata* (Padua), 1, 3 (1972), 417-70.

Work reported by Baldi (in the same issue of SILTA) suggested that the linguistic complexity of sentences produced by children of nine and ten depends not on their social class but on their intelligence. The present study re-examines the data to assess this hypothesis.

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Comparing the indices of lexical variety with those of socio-economic status it seemed that stimuli provided by the environment played a greater part than intellectual capacity. The brighter children used more substantives – otherwise there was little correlation between the class of word used and intelligence, or between the complexity of the verb-form used and intelligence. There was some correlation between intelligence and the use of conjunctions and the misuse of prepositions – both of which activities concern the articulation of complex ideas. Because the tests of spoken language were different in nature from the written tests there was a lack of correspondence in the resultant data. A rich variety of lexis correlated with middling rather than high intelligence. Uncertain or erroneous punctuation, spelling, verbs and syntax all correlated with lower IQ. The hypothesis was formulated that a measure of linguistic complexity could be the number of transformations required to compose a syntagm. The hypothesis was tested by examining the role of the nominative syntagm. Two main developments were considered: the substantive with or without modifiers; and nominalized clauses which result from subordination procedures. Eleven variables were identified. Variables derived from transformation of relatives: (1) total of attributive adjectives; (2) nouns in apposition – otherwise equivalent to class (1); (3) prepositional constructions which modify the noun; (4) participles derived from active verbs; (5) participles derived from passive verbs; (6) sum of all instances of (1) to (5); variables derived from nominalization of sentences; (7) substantivized infinitives; (8) nominalizations of the verbal predicate; (9) nominalizations of the noun predicate; (10) total of all nominalizations; (11) abstract nouns. All variables showed a correlation with intelligence and most reached statistical significance. The ability to use these constructions in free expression correlates with intelligence and not with social status. Traditional tests which measure lexical span and grammatical accuracy correlate more with canons of formal correctness than with the creative use of language. [Suggestions for guide lines in the conduct of language lessons with junior school children, based on the findings. Statistical tables.]

(450) ADN AFM AGR

PHONOLOGY

73-232 **Hooper, Joan B.** The syllable in phonological theory. *Language* (Baltimore, Md), 48, 3 (1972), 525-40.

While the syllable is recognized as an important phonological unit, current phonological theory provides no definition of it. The paper sets out to justify the formal recognition of the syllable in phonological theory and to suggest a universal definition in terms of conventions for the placement of syllable boundaries. The author considers whether there can be a descriptively adequate phonology of Spanish without reference to the positive segments within a syllable. The discussion is based on the rules for nasal and lateral assimilation and for *S*-voicing in *Allegretto* speech in Spanish. [Examples.] Rule-alternation with *Andante* speech style is studied.

The paper discusses the tenseness which characterizes vowels in open stressed syllables in some dialects of Spanish, including Castilian. [Examples.] The author also considers consonant gradation in Finnish, consonant devoicing in German, Sievers' Law for East Germanic languages, the placement of accent in Japanese and certain sound contextualization phenomena in Akan. [Rules are suggested for each case considered.] Although in most cases syllabic definition can be avoided the resulting analyses are more complex. It seems of more general application to define the syllable in terms of sequences of segments rather than to prescribe the sequences of segments in terms of the syllable. Although the definition proposed contains universal features there must be constraints on the definition if it is to be truly universal. The paper discusses necessary modifications. [Examples and bibliography.] (460) AJ

VOCABULARY STUDIES

73-233 **Ullmann, Stephen.** How the vocabulary grows. *Modern Languages* (London), 54, 1 (1973), 1-8.

The processes of lexical expansion fall into four broad categories: we may coin a word from scratch, form a new term by combining

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elements already in the language, take over a word from a foreign idiom or change the meaning of an existing term. (1) Purely arbitrary coinage is a relatively rare occurrence: *gas* formed by a Flemish physician from the Greek *chaos*, *veronal* because the inventor was on his way to Verona. (2) Word formation may combine into a new term elements that are themselves words in their own right; *blackbird*, *bedroom* and *lovely-dumb* are examples of different types of complexity in formation. Derivatives differ from the compound in that at least one of their components is not a word but a non-independent element: *traduce*, *refroidir*, *clairement*. The simplest method is conversion, where a term passes from one class into another without special modification: *to sack*, *des hens bien*, *but me no buts*. Lastly, there are abbreviations of various sorts: *mob*, *radar*, *cégétiste*, *Cominform*. [Portmanteau words and back-formation are briefly discussed and illustrated.] (3) Borrowing may be of two types: primarily semantic, for greater linguistic efficiency, or primarily cultural and dependent on social or aesthetic factors. [Classical borrowings, and modern European loan-words discussed: eg the progression from *Übermensch* to *superman* to *surhomme*.] (4) Change of meaning is the most economical method of filling a gap in vocabulary. Semantic changes may have linguistic, historical or social causes. [Examples.] Processes of taboo and euphemism, foreign influence, the association of ideas, in particular by metaphor and metonymy, and the need to find a new name for a new idea or discovery are other agents of change. [Examples including, for the last category, *satelles* (L. attendant) and its derivatives in astronomy (Kepler and more recently), anatomy, zoology, town planning and politics. Bibliography.]

ALD

TRANSLATION

73–234 Newmark, Peter. An approach to translation. *Babel* (Gerlingen), **19**, 1 (1973), 3–19.

Although no integrated theory of translation is considered possible, an attempt is made to distinguish artistic from scientific aspects of translation. For this purpose three categories of language are used:

informational or cognitive, impressive or persuasive, and expressive, embracing subjective styles. In general terms, the main unit of translation for each may be said to be the sentence, the paragraph and the word-group, respectively. Concerning cognitive language, it is preferable to transfer denotative rather than connotative meaning and to adhere to equivalent frequency in lexis and syntax, provided that semantic equivalence is not infringed. The translator has more freedom with impressive language, since his chief concern is to produce a desired effect on the reader through the type of language used rather than through its cognitive content. Expressive language, like poetry, places emphasis on metaphor. Distributional and resonant properties, rhyme and metre, however, must all be subordinated eventually to the rendering of meaning. [Dynamic equivalence in all three categories may require the modification of these principles, particularly when institutional and cultural differences intrude.]

Several literary genres are related to these categories and their accompanying translation techniques, although, generally, no one genre can be viewed as belonging entirely to any one category. [Titles, neologisms, non-equivalents, tautologies, and the use of footnotes and paraphrase are also treated in relation to each category, and plays receive particular attention.]

ARG

STYLISTIC ANALYSIS

73-235 **Buyssens, E.** Répétitions usuelles. [Common repetitions.] *Revue des Langues Vivantes* (Brussels), 38, 1 (1972), 9-21.

Most grammars only take into account pleonasm and the cognate object as types of repetition, but there are others, either of form, or meaning, or both. Pleonasm, defined as an expression not required by the strict enunciation of the idea, can consist of apposition by a repeated pronoun (*nous, nous le savons*), or of an added complement (*je les ai vus de mes yeux*). Repetition of the pronoun or other elements is an emphatic device, to express duration or frequency (*you've given me hours and hours of misery*). The cognate object repeats part of the meaning of the verb (*vivre sa vie*), but redundancy also occurs less

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explicitly (*allumer un feu; ask a question*), or between subject and verb (*the wind was blowing*), or even without a verb (*a flash of lightning*). Some repetitions can be used to good effect, others become meaningless through use, or are simply faults of style. Another type usually ignored in the grammars is tautology, in which the predicate gives no more information than the subject (*au jour d'aujourd'hui*). The logically absurd $A = A$ is linguistically correct and in very common use (*une femme est une femme; me voici tel que je suis; trop, c'est trop*). Such illogical phrases nonetheless express an idea left inexplicit – the inevitable or indisputable. Difficulties of comprehension can arise when the phrase is not international (*that's that*). The construction *pour* + repetition (*pour de la chance, c'est de la chance*) is peculiar to French. One last type of repetition is elliptic rather than pleonastic (*mot pour mot; tel ou tel; there's truth and truth*). Some examples are international (*an eye for an eye*), others not (*what's what; who's who*). Yet others contribute comment through paradox: *le capitalisme, c'est l'exploitation de l'homme par l'homme, et le communisme, c'est l'inverse*. [Examples are drawn from French, German, English, Latin, Dutch and Greek literary sources.]

(440) AVB (420)

SIGNS

73–236 **Schogt, H. G.** *Synonymie et signe linguistique*. [Synonymy and linguistic sign.] *Linguistique* (Paris), 8, 2 (1972), 5–38.

The author considers the model of the linguistic sign proposed by Saussure and the evidence for the arbitrary nature of the sign. Although Saussure adduced evidence from various languages it is possible to restrict consideration to one language and to the phenomenon called synonymy. Synonymy does not extend to include morphemes unless these are also lexemes: nor to the free variation of forms with little phonetic difference. The synonymy of lexical units and synonymy between sentences is considered. The degree of synonymy is defined and illustrated. [Examples and diagrams.] The analysis of grammatical categories leads to the establishment of systems and sub-systems in which lexical items are related. Several

proposals are discussed which are concerned with the analysis of lexical items. The author concludes that the domain of the Saussurian sign will need to be changed and extended if there is to be an account of the complexity of synonymy. [Bibliography.]

(440) **ADN ALR AXD**