Meaning was banished from Bloomfieldian linguistics but the study of semantics has benefited from research in cybernetics and now advances on four fronts: organization of lexis according to internal semantic structure (semantic fields); study of lexis at the level of syntagmatic relationships (both in competence and performance); the resolution of semantic content into items of mental activity (operational analysis), and statistical analysis. Recently attention has been concentrated on the analysis of semantic components within lexical items with the aim of identifying distinctive features and minimal units of meaning (semes). But the seme has lost precision in a welter of unrelated definitions. Problems often stem from an attempt to identify units of meaning inherent in the real objects which words refer to, whereas meaning is entirely dependent on the ideas present in the mind of the speaker at the moment of articulation. The binary contrasts which have proved so useful in phonological analysis are less widely applicable to semantics.

Componential analysis has gained from the recognition of a logical component in semantics. This concept is used both when discussing the ‘lexicality’ of an utterance and concerning the ‘presuppositions’ about the aim of successful act of communication. Methodologically the item to be analysed should be the whole utterance. This is a polyvalent unit; it has internal semantic and syntactic relationships, it carries psychological implications at the presegmental level and has logical impact at the postsegmental level. The psychological level is conditioned by innate structures. The logical level is implicit; the
ordinary speaker is aware of it as a principle which delimits his freedom of discourse but he is not aware of it in a clear, systematic way. 'Presupposition' is the semantic quality which underlies the use of such words as to accuse and to praise and which accounts for speakers of a language communicating such implicit values unambiguously. [An example of componential analysis of attributes of size. Grande contrasted with piccolo, ampio, vasto, esteso, and with words for big in other languages.] An urgent matter for explanation is this: how from a fundamental meaning of more or less common significance for all speakers one can pass to an emotional or subjective significance which varies from moment to moment but is nevertheless just as comprehensible as the general meaning.

LINGUISTIC DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS


The author proposes ten statements as a set of postulates using the case designations proposed by Fillmore in 'Toward a Modern Theory of Case' in Modern Studies in English edited by Reibel and Schane (Prentice-Hall, 1966) but largely based on the semantic analysis found in Chafe in Meaning and the Structure of Language (University of Chicago Press, 1970). The postulates are that: (1) in language analysis semantics is central; (2) semantics has a structure; (3) semantic structures are deep structures; (4) in deep semantic structures the verb is central; (5) a verb has one and only one case frame; (6) verbs with the same case frame belong to a single verb type; (7) propositional cases are part of the case frame of the verb; (8) propositional case roles are assigned by the verb to the noun; (9) modal cases are not represented in the case frame; (10) modal cases are independent of a particular verb. The statement of postulates allows discussion of case grammar to work with only those which seem to offer the most reasonable insights. An analysis of text in English shows that the many verbs belong to a small number of verb types.
LINGUISTIC DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS

according to case frames. The principal verb types discovered coincide with those isolated under postulate (6). The author discusses the advantages of using the system of case grammar analysis presented.

[References.]


The author considers the various approaches by linguists towards the description of the use of language for literature. He describes in particular the oppositions in linguistics and literary criticism which have contributed to the multiplicity of viewpoints. Against this background he surveys the developments in linguistics and stylistics with a view to the synthesis of the many differences. [Examples of a study of stylistic effects using transformational grammar as a metric.] The improvements are discussed which work in generative semantics offers the study of literary language. [Bibliography.]


A change is taking place in the relationship between linguistics on the one hand and psychology and theories of language behaviour on the other. The problems under discussion go back to the beginnings of modern linguistics, whose founders claimed that their new science was autonomous, and not only independent of psychology but also having priority over it. This claim has never been proved. The author attempts a rational rather than metaphysical interpretation of the main function and meaning of linguistics. Two claims, priority and inter-individuality, are critically examined. The basic approach of linguistics is found to be largely antigenetic and not based on empirical research. It is suspected that the cause of this attitude is linked with
the claim to priority and autonomy. Language is seen as the *fait social* with priority over the individual *parole*. It is no longer understood as man's product: man is instead dominated by language. [Critical evaluation of generative grammar, which is seen as basically anti-empirical.]

Linguistics tries to prevent any empirical examination of its claim to priority. Even the most recent, strictly formal, logical-axiomatic interpretations of linguistics seem to be nothing more than metaphysical explanations in disguise, whose purpose is to maintain the claim to priority. The concept of autonomy, taken as independence rather than priority, can form part of a rational interpretation of linguistics [details of two interpretations given]. An integrated science of behaviour, including linguistics and psycholinguistics, would, however, be preferable to autonomy of any kind.

**ADN AG**


The paper is intended to present some of the principles that govern the gathering of the empirical data of linguistics. It considers principles of methodology concerning the use of texts, elicitations, intuitions, and observations of the vernacular. The methods of historical linguists are discussed and the value of new data to their investigations. The field linguist must be fully aware of the differences between the data he elicits and other levels of competence in the language. The reliance of linguists on intuitive data has brought into focus large areas of disagreement about grammaticality and shared intuitions. Uncheckable examples are defended by the linguist on the grounds that he is discussing only his own dialect. While there have been problems in establishing measures of acceptability, it should not be forgotten that investigations have usually been concerned with the difficult areas. Linguistics cannot account for all data.

The author considers the observation of natural speech to be the most difficult of all the methods discussed. The validity of theories of language is determined by the extent to which they match the language of everyday life as it is used when the linguist is not present. The grammar of any speech community is more regular than the language...
behaviour of the individuals of whom the community is composed. At present the distinction between performance and competence is unclear. Linguists are unwilling to use tape-recordings for data collection and uncertain about interviewing strangers in the linguist's own culture. The linguist must be aware that when speakers of a subordinate dialect are asked direct questions about their language, their answers will shift in an irregular manner toward (or away from) the super-ordinate dialect. The 'Observer's Paradox' is that to obtain the data most important for linguistic theory, the linguist has to observe how people speak when they are not being observed. The various solutions to this paradox define the methodology for the study of language in context. [A history of sociolinguistic methods. Bibliography.]

ADN AFK ATD

73–161 Petrucci, P. Strutture e categorie. [Structures and categories.] Lingua e stile (Bologna), 7, 2 (1972), 391–409.

Formal systems have systems of representation and interpretation which can be schematized so as to clarify the concept of structure. The structure of a 'mathematical object' does not depend on its constituent elements; there are syntactic rules (representation) and semantic rules (interpretation). Systems of such rules are provided in the description of monoids (semi-groups). The relations between the structures of formal systems are handled by the notions of homomorphism and isomorphism. These notions allow us to 'represent' the structure of a model of syntax; we 'interpret' it by assigning to the model a finite sequence of elements.

For the representation of more complex structures, work on a fragment of generative grammar illustrates how structures and categories of one formal system may be mapped in the structures and categories of another. By this means certain complex formal algebraic systems are interpreted in terms of the structures and categories of a natural language. Such a representation of a process of construction in another system clarifies the interpretation of both structures.

ADN ANX
It seems impossible to include Guillaume among the precursors of Saussure, who was twenty-six when Guillaume was born and whose *Cours de linguistique générale* (1916) pre-dates Guillaume’s *Le Problème de l’article* by three years. However, three (later rejected) minor works (1911–13) by Guillaume give cause for reflexion. Guillaume, through Meillet, was an early admirer of the *Cours*, and there are three possible hypotheses; (1) that the *Cours* was a revelation to Guillaume which caused him to reject his early work; (2) that he decided to follow Saussure hoping for reflected glory; (3) that his *langue/discours* distinction was elaborated independently of Saussure. How do the four major themes of Saussure’s work (the notion of system, the definition of linguistic sign, and the two dichotomies *langue/parole* and *synchronic/diachronic*) appear in Guillaume’s work?

Before 1916, ‘system’ for Guillaume means simply ‘ensemble’ (*Tout se tient dans le langage*); in 1919 it means ‘an interplay of oppositions’. His early writings show no interest in the history of language but he concurs with Saussure less on the priority of the synchronic approach than on the unfruitfulness of the diachronic. On the sign, Guillaume’s *mot/chose* before 1916 corresponds roughly to *signifiant/signifié* and his further distinction between *signifié de puissance* and *signifié d’effet* brings us near to the Saussurian *langue/parole* distinction. Guillaume later redefined this as *langue/discours*. In short, the *Cours* may have helped to fix some of Guillaume’s ideas but did not interrupt or contradict his earlier interests. His later work shows that he modified the concept of ‘sign’ independently and examined in depth the role of the diachronic approach and his own view of *langue*.
BILINGUALISM


In an investigation of language switching, bilinguals were asked to decide whether the pitch of the speaker’s voice was high or low as the speaker pronounced the words *high, low, haute, or basse* in either a high or low pitch. [The authors describe the experiment and discuss previous studies of responses to conflicting stimuli.] The investigation suggests that a simple switching model of bilingualism is inadequate. Scarcely any error was found in the choice of language. The major source of interference seems to be in the semantic aspects of the stimuli. [Bibliography.]

**AFG AJK AYM**

PHONOLOGY

73–164  **St Clair, Robert N.** Compound phonological segments. *Lingua* (Amsterdam), **29**, 2 (1972), 120–7.

The paper is intended to promote the concept of ‘compound phoneme’ (used by Bloomfield in his book *Language* and elsewhere to describe the case of two simple phonemes acting as a unit) not only as a contribution to phonemic theory but also by generalization, as an addition to the metatheory of generative phonology. Its possible use is discussed as a convention for cases of the coalescence of two separate vowels to form one unit vowel. [An illustration from Spanish verb morphology.] Its use in the case of coalescing consonants is illustrated by the treatment of the problematical affricate medially in phrases such as, *why choose?* and *white shoes*, and by a way of accounting for the transition from slow to rapid speech. The use of the convention will also permit a simplification of the phonological rules. [Detail and discussion of Bloomfield’s rules for noun plural suffixes. Bibliography.]

**(420) AJ**

‘Rules’ of translation are set out in the hope that translators will test some of their problems against them. Context is the overriding factor in all translation, and has primacy over any rule. [Each item is discussed, with examples in English, French and German (and, in one case, Italian): (1) the range and acceptability of collocations, (2) differences in the treatment of well and badly written texts, (3) making formal correspondences, in particular of metaphor: one example given is a storm in a teacup with the literal and figurative options in German, (4) equivalent frequency of structures and lexical items, (5) translating words used outside their normal contexts, (6) a source-language word should not be translated into a target-language word which has another obvious one-to-one equivalent in the source language, (7) translation as an exercise in synonymy and in the full use of the target language, for instance, English verb-nouns and German Formwörter like auch, eben, mal, (8) a tricky source-language word with important semantic components should be rendered by several words or grammatical features, (9) handling institutional and cultural terms, (10) conceptual terms of notorious difficulty, (11) methods of preserving sentence stress, indicated by the word order, without sacrificing lexical accuracy, (12) the importance of connotation, (13) when and when not to repeat a word, (14) distinguishing linked synonyms, (15) cultural allusions, (16) using the negative plus contrary (shallow/peu profond), (17) alternative terms, (18) the title is best translated last, (19) language features that may be omitted, (20) quotations, (21) neologisms, (22) the problems posed by an obscured syntactical (surface) structure, and (23) interference.]
MACHINE TRANSLATION


The history of the development and demise of translation by machine is paralleled by the history of artificial intelligence in general. The assumed relationship between the theory of a machine’s capabilities and that of human thought mechanisms does not live up to expectations in practice and has created false hopes in the field of machine translation. Although appearing initially relatively simple, human algorithmic processes have not proved fully simulable. On the basis of a small number of models, the human brain can induce global rules and extrapolate from far more complex and numerous examples than can an electronic calculator.

The number of machine translation centres has substantially dropped since 1960 and attention in them has generally shifted away from the production of machine translation as a finished product which is commercially usable, and towards the allied areas of applied mathematical linguistics, structural linguistic analysis and mechanical aids for translators. Having found that even the most complete traditional grammars were inadequate for programming the increasingly complex data on syntax which gradually emerged as a result of their work, researchers failed to produce programmes which could be generalized to suit new texts without numerous modifications. Lack of funds has never been advanced as a reason for the failure of a centre to realize its expectations, but certain American centres have found the cost of combined human and machine translation to be higher than wholly human work. In the few remaining centres, which have published no result of any consequence lately, pessimism is still felt concerning the commercial viability of machine translation. [An example follows illustrating the type of ambiguity produced by machine translation.]

ARK
In a recent demonstration at the Université de Montréal, English sentences covering a wide variety of syntactic types have been translated into acceptable French by computer. Sentences are composed using the thousand most frequent English words, and the computer implements a series of transformational grammars and dictionary look-up procedures. Translated output is returned in a few seconds by means of the same teletype (which may be used in conjunction with a telephone for long-distance translation), with details of certain analysis, transfer and generation phases.

Recent advances in transformational theory have made it possible to relate the deep or semantic structures of language, rather than their surface structures. [Details of the use of a pivot language as intermediary between Russian and French in a project at Grenoble.] In the work at Montreal English is ‘normalized’, put into ‘normalized’ French and finally into French proper. [Technical description of methods: (1) Q-systems and transformational grammar, (2) morphological phases, (3) syntactic recognition phase, (4) transfer phase, (5) generation of French surface structures. Brief and extended examples are given, with diagrams.] The flexibility of the Montreal machine-translation prototype will permit the rapid expansion of its English lexicon and transfer dictionary well beyond their current 1000-entry size. Within a few years, however, the limitations of structural transfer will become the chief hindrance to the improvement in quality of automatic translation.