

## LINGUISTIC DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS

**68-166 Dressler, Wolfgang.** Wege der Sprachtypologie. [Trends in language typology.] *Die Sprache: Zeitschrift für Sprachwissenschaft* (Vienna), **13**, 1 (1967), 1-19.

The author reviews the methods and procedures of language typology revealed in the large number of recent publications on the subject. Numerous allusions are made to the work of various authors. Three dimensions of typology are discussed: syntagmatic, paradigmatic and organizational. Using as his example the genitive case in Latin, the author suggests that a typology should proceed from a classification of a given subsystem of a language, according to mathematical 'set' theory. This will give a hierarchy of functions and subfunctions, ordered by importance. Translation equivalence will then establish the comparability of this subsystem with that of another language, which is then also mathematically described and ordered. The two sets of data are then compared to discover equivalences and differences between them. Finally, the author explores possible ways of setting up a 'universal grammar', containing all features of all languages, which will enable any languages to be compared and classified according to any chosen criteria.

**68-167 Gregory, Michael.** Aspects of varieties differentiation. *Journal of Linguistics* (Edinburgh), **3**, 2 (1967), 177-198.

Since a 'whole language' is so vast and heterogeneous, it is desirable to have a framework of categories for the classification of 'sub-languages' or varieties within a language.

The difference between situational and other kinds of linguistic description has been exaggerated. Because situation cannot be described exhaustively, that does not mean it should not be described

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at all. Situational elements which are relevant to given linguistic forms or groups and complexes of forms are discovered or invented by changing situational features and observing what textual changes take place or by changing the text and observing what situational change occurs. The situational features involved in varieties distinction relate to reasonably permanent characteristics of the user (e.g. his individuality, his temporal, geographical and social provenances, and his range of intelligibility) and recurrent characteristics of the user's use of language.

Because users of a particular language are aware of the verbalizations of common situational contexts and contexts of experience, the texts of language events can create their own situations.

Field, mode, and tenor of discourse are all related to the role and purpose of the user in the language event. Purposive roles may be specialized or non-specialized. It should eventually be possible to describe the fields of any discourse with varying degrees of specificity. Spontaneous and non-spontaneous speech may be distinguished. The former may be divided into conversing and monologuing, the latter into reciting and the speaking of what is written. [The author discusses each of these modes.] Much language is written not necessarily to be spoken. Texts must be described in terms of whether or not the medium relationship has been successfully reflected in the language chosen.

There is considerable confusion in the use of such terms as 'register' and 'style'. [The author discusses this confusion and makes recommendations for the use of 'dialectal variety', 'diatypic variety', 'field', 'mode', and 'tenor'.]

Descriptions of categories of variety differentiation could be used in the language-teacher's choice of materials.

The native speaker is linguistically competent in many different circumstances. Linguistics should concern itself both with linguistic competence and with what actually happens in situations.

- 68-168 McDavid, Raven I.** Historical, regional, and social variation. *Journal of English Linguistics* (Bellingham, Washington), 1 (1967), 24-41.

In any speech community some people use the language better than others; but there is no simple opposition between good and bad.

Usage may vary in a number of related dimensions: of the medium, of responsibility, of maturity, of vogue, of association, of relationship between the speaker or writer and his audience, of history, of region, and of society. For the last three scales of variation, the speaker has little choice.

There is variation in several aspects of communication. Outside language are proxemics, haptics, kinesics, and paralanguage. Within language there are the suprasegmentals or prosodics, as well as phonemes, morphemes, lexicon, and syntax.

Changes have taken place as the result of various forces. [Examples of phonetic, morphological, syntactic and lexical change.] Regional differences arise in various ways: from original settlement, from settlement by foreigners, from migration and communication, from a cultural focus, from political boundaries. [Examples of regional differences in pronunciation, morphology, syntax and lexis.] Social dialects accompany differences in social standing. There is uneducated, or folk, speech; common speech; and educated, cultivated, or standard speech. The social distance between levels is not the same in all communities. Cultivation is relative, and measured by local standards. Local tolerance between formal and informal educated speech differs strikingly.

Social dialect problems are created by immigration. The immigrants may have a different native language, use a non-standard dialect from the same region, or use a substandard dialect of another region. [Examples given.]

- 68-169 Seiler, Hansjakob.** Paradigmatic and syntagmatic similarity. *Lingua* (Amsterdam), 18, 1 (1967), 35-79.

This study is an inquiry into the interrelation between a linguistic

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unit (morpheme, morpheme sequence, word, etc.) and a combination or syntagm of units. As it is felt that the syntagms are still much less understood than the units, this study proposes to clarify some principles for the description of syntagms by a combined view on paradigmatic structures. Empirical data for demonstration and exploration are drawn primarily from the older Indo-European languages.

The position taken by structural linguists of different schools on the notion of paradigm cannot be generalized. Definitions by Hjelmslev and Bloomfield, and the position of post-Bloomfieldian linguistics as represented by Bloch and Trager are given. This is followed by a summary of the author's position. An attempt is made to discover the principles underlying the paradigm [illustrations from Latin], and those underlying the syntagm, and the problems which arise.

It is still debatable whether the syntax of languages of different types ought to be described by applying different models of description. For a long time English has been described in terms of Latin or Greek and the paradigms proper to English may have been overlooked. Prepositional phrases need close attention. Their paradigm has yet to be constructed. Exploration is conducted into paradigmatic similarity illustrated from the forms of the German definite article. Syntagmatic similarity is considered with reference to ancient Indo-European languages and proto-Indo-European.

## LINGUISTIC SOCIOLOGY

**68–170 Bernstein, Basil.** Elaborated and restricted codes: an outline. *International Journal of American Linguistics* (Bloomington, Indiana), **33**, 4 (1967), 126–33.

A distinction is drawn between language and speech, speech being a message and language a code. Language is also a set of rules with which all speech codes must comply. The particular speech codes generated are functions of the system of social relations. Children who have access to different speech systems (i.e. learn different roles through their position in a given social structure) may adopt quite different social and intellectual procedures. A child who is limited to

a restricted code will tend to develop in terms of the regulation inherent in the code. Speech will not be perceived as a major means of presenting inner states to the other. Role relations may be limited and code switching hampered by the consequences of a restricted code. If a child is to succeed as he progresses through school it becomes critical for him to possess, or at least be oriented towards, an elaborated code. The relative backwardness of lower working class and rural children may well be a form of culturally induced backwardness which is transmitted to the child through the linguistic process. [Bibliography.]

**68–171 Hertzler, Joyce O.** Social uniformation and language. *International Journal of American Linguistics* (Bloomington, Indiana), **33**, 4 (1967), 170–84.

In spite of the population consisting of a complex of heterogeneous groups with differing values, beliefs and habits, there is abundant evidence of uniformation in present-day society which is reflected in language. This is not surprising, as language is a basic social instrument; its structure at any given time operates as a ready-made meta-physical framework in which we perceive and conceptualize. In spite of the contemporary tendency to form special sub-languages (the jargon of professional groups, organizations, etc.) the major tendency is towards linguistic uniformation. It takes three major forms: (1) the increasing sway of 'standard' language, (2) the extension of 'empire' language (chiefly English and Russian), (3) the development of universal vocabularies and terminologies for international functions. [An inventory is given of the major factors in the uniformation of language.]

The author notes the causes of diversity of language in the past and shows that a common or uniform language creates a 'speech fellowship' which is conducive to a strong 'collective consciousness'. The indigenous language of a community is its most important assimilative agent [importance of language for immigrants, cultural minorities, conquered peoples]. Printing, literacy and mass media have all contributed to uniformity. Mass media can give a shared experience and common culture even to the illiterate. There is need

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for even greater linguistic uniformation to enable political, technical and cultural progress to take place in a world where the space-place-time factor will soon be greatly reduced in significance.

## PHONETICS AND PHONOLOGY

**68-172 Kohler, K.** Die Stellung der Phonologie innerhalb der deskriptiven Linguistik. [The place of phonology in descriptive linguistics.] *Phonetica* (Basle), **17**, 2 (1967), 116-28.

British and American structural linguistics based the principles of phonology on field-work done on African and Indian languages without a written form. What was originally a challenge in method to the transcriber later became an absolute and was raised to a theoretical postulate. Later linguistic description of morphology and syntax arose from phonetics and phonology. The 'hierarchy of levels' maintained that morphological and syntactic criteria could not be used in phonetic description. Phonology must be based on phonetics and develop according to the principle of 'bi-uniqueness', implying that a series of phonemes clearly represents a chain of signals and vice versa. Phonemes can be established from phonetic material. [Two examples from German show that the 'hierarchy of levels' and 'bi-uniqueness' cannot be recognized as theoretical postulates. Simpler and more adequate descriptions can be given.] Phonology lies midway in descriptive linguistics, directed towards both phonetics and syntax and relating the two. It is independent of both morphology and syntax as well as being determined by them. German examples show the multiple relations between phonology and grammar and are followed by a detailed examination of phonology and its elements.

## PHONEMICS

- 68–173 Cohen, Stephen P., G. Richard Tucker and Wallace E. Lambert.** The comparative skills of monolinguals and bilinguals in perceiving phoneme sequences. *Language and Speech* (Teddington), **10**, 3 (1967), 159–68.

Five groups of students were used: two of them monolingual in English or French, three bilingual in English and French (one native in English, one in French and one in both languages). Thirty-six phoneme sequences were chosen, and assigned to one of four categories: occurring initially in English and French, occurring initially in English, occurring initially in French and not occurring initially in either language. They were recorded in two random orders. Subjects repeated aloud what they heard when the tapes were replayed, and were recorded. Analysts unaware of the nature of the experiment transcribed the subjects' utterances.

Results showed that all groups had perceived most accurately sequences occurring in both languages, and least accurately those occurring in neither language. Sequences occurring in French only were better perceived by native French subjects than those occurring in English only. Native English subjects were equally successful with sequences occurring in French only and in English only. Many mistakes were distortions towards the sequences of the subject's own language. Most errors were in the first phoneme of the sequence.

[The author speculates as to interpretation of the results, discussing frequency, the structure of the phonemes, transfer accuracy of bilinguals, etc.]

## GRAMMAR

- 68–174 Richards, I. A.** Why generative grammar does not help: (2). *English Language Teaching* (London), **22**, 2 (1968), 101–6.

The real hazards of language are absent from grammars. Linguistic study is justified by improved communication.

Among those who study language, there are some who are interested

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in various kinds of difference: dialects, registers, etc. Idiolects differ too. There is great diversity in individual competence.

The construct 'a fluent speaker' (Katz and Fodor) is highly abstract. If sentences are wholly novel, the speaker must be a beginner in the language. If the 'fluent speaker' can produce and understand the sentences of the language, he can not only understand Shakespeare but write like him. The theory ignores the differences between passive and active competence.

Grammatical form and semantic import are intimately interwoven. The necessary comparisons cannot arise or be made without consideration of possible settings in discourse or in non-linguistic contexts.

[The author then goes on to criticize Chomskyan use of the words *know* and *rule*.] There is confusion between description of a competence and the competence itself. Traditional grammar inculcated this confusion and it is still professionally maintained.

## LEXICOLOGY

**68–175 Newmark, P. P.** A note on the concept of correlativity in lexicology. *The Incorporated Linguist* (London), 6, 4 (1967), 97–102.

All language has its formal, functional, and semantic aspects. Until recently, lexicology has been mainly diachronic and semantic. [The author mentions Halliday's and Quirk's view on lexis, and refers to Reum's study of collocations and Roget's study of sets.] There is another lexical category: correlativity. This is a mathematical concept with applications in various fields. Correlativity is commonly used to denote contrast. Synonyms, grammatical class correspondences, collocations, compounds, gender, spelling, and usage can be contrasted.

Within a certain linguistic register, a word that normally has several meanings is narrowed and defined by its collocation with or proximity to another word, with which it may be said to correlate. [Examples from German.] A single word may be developed in meaning by contrast with another which is implied. [Examples from English.]

A negative is always in implicit contrast with its positive. Two near-synonyms that are restricted in meaning are clarified by proximity. An unusual collocation often collocates implicitly with a commoner one restricted in its lexical field. [Examples from English. The author also contrasts Racine's and Hugo's lexicon.] Certain pairs of words are distinguishable merely because they refer to objects commonly associated with each other. They belong to a lexical set but express no semantic contrast.

The contrast between *right* and *left* is the main instance of correlativity. As antithesis, correlativity may be regarded as a category and as a scale of lexicology. A single item may have various correlates.

Absolute correlations consist either of a part and its whole, or of the two or more constituent parts of a whole ranging from antitheses to full complements, or of two or more words with one referent. Contextual correlations consist of words, not usually associated, that resemble each other formally or semantically, and that restrict and redefine each other's meaning when collocated. Correlations are linguistic when they centre on a single idea or object, and can be classified according to semantic, functional, or formal criteria.

The scale of correlativity can be extended to an infinite degree of delicacy. All concepts are meaningless without reference to their correlates.

**68–176 Preller, Arno G.** Some problems involved in compiling word frequency lists. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), 51, 7 (1967), 399–402.

There is a need for still more valid and up-to-date word-frequency lists compiled by more objective procedures. Aims, size, source and procedure will all affect the count. Lack of a suitable definition of a 'word' is a hindrance to compilers of such lists. [Illustrations from German verbs show how two words are used to convey one meaning.] The fluid quality of the living, particularly spoken, language is a second problem to the word-counter. 'Language' is a still more complicated abstraction than 'word' and words differ in frequency according to the language register studied. There is agreement today

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that 1,000 of the most frequent words constitute about three-quarters of any running text.

Although from the standpoint of linguistics the object of word counts is questionable and many arbitrary decisions have to precede compilation, the need for such lists in teaching continues to exist. The order in which words are introduced continues to be a matter of concern to teachers and textbook writers for the first two or three levels of language instruction. Frequency lists can be valid up to 2,000 items. After that, word-fields from subject-matter groups are of more importance than frequency lists.

## TRANSLATION

**68-177 Etkind, E.** *La stylistique comparée, base de l'art de traduire.* [Comparative stylistics, the basis for the art of translation.] *Babel* (Avignon), 13, 1 (1967), 23-30.

The literary translator is not only dealing with language at the linguistic level. He is attempting to convey the mental make-up of one people to others whose make-up is different. The ideas of von Humboldt, Weisgerber, Thier, Sapir and Whorf are discussed concerning the extent to which language affects men's culture and the impossibility of adequately conveying the mentality of one people through the mentality of another. Seidler considered that the greater the differences between two languages the more difficult the task of translation became, but this has been proved wrong. Quite closely related languages may have totally different stylistic values for similar terms. Linguistic problems are united with literary and aesthetic problems. Translation can be considered as a second degree of literary creation. Recently a number of books have appeared, particularly in France, on comparative stylistics. The author disagrees with the French conception, feeling that comparative stylistics should study the laws which govern the art of translation. To establish these laws six levels of confrontation are discussed: the confrontation of (1) two linguistic systems, (2) the stylistic systems of two languages, (3) traditional literary styles in two languages, (4) two national prosodic systems,

(5) the cultural and historical traditions of two national civilizations as expressed in literature, (6) the author's and the translator's aesthetic systems. These points are discussed and illustrated.

## PARALINGUISTICS

**68-178 Cammack, Floyd M. and H. Van Buren.** Paralanguage across cultures: some comparisons between Japanese and English. *ELEC Bulletin* (Kanda), 22 (1967), 7-10 and 47.

Guides for the teaching of paralinguistic phenomena are difficult to find. The article describes some of the basic English ways of indicating feelings and reactions and the different means by which the two languages in question express their emotions. The expression of politeness and respect and their absence are treated, ways by which a speaker is induced to believe in the truth of what is being said and of expressing doubt and disbelief or surprise without accusing the speaker of lying. Difficulties in understanding humour, sarcasm or hyperbole are noted, and the ways in which factors such as lowered register, increased nasality, squeeze and rasp contrast with the exaggerated glissando and rasp of the Japanese comic story teller. Ways of expressing anger are highly conditioned by cultural factors. Overt annoyance is expressed in similar fashion by both English and Japanese. Controlled anger is much more difficult to recognize and is very difficult for any but a trained actor to express at will. Expressions of complaint and grief may be heavily influenced by social class. TV and radio dramas can provide examples of paralinguistic phenomena not necessarily for imitation but for recognition.