

LINGUISTIC THEORY

81–320 Allan, Keith. Nouns and countability. *Language* (Baltimore, Md), **56**, 3 (1980), 541–67.

The customary disjunctive marking of lexical entries for English nouns as [\pm countable] does not match the fact that the majority can be used both countably and uncountably in different NP environments: this binary opposition is characteristic not of the nouns, but of the NPs which they had. Nevertheless, nouns do have countability preferences; some enter countable environments more readily than others. And not all nouns occur in all kinds of countability environments. A noun's countability preference can be computed by checking its potential for occurrence in a definitive set of countability environments. In the dialect examined here, well-formedness conditions on NP must consider eight levels of countability among English nouns – not, as custom has it, only two.

81–321 Giacalone Ramat, Anna. Verso una teoria del mutamento sintattico. [Towards a theory of syntactic change.] *Lingua e Stile* (Bologna), **15**, 4 (1980), 439–563.

Recent studies have suggested that the mechanism of linguistic variation is not free. Although most such studies (e.g. Labov) attempt to investigate the changes in the phonetic system, it is argued here that in addition the level of syntactic changes can show correlations with social factors. After reviewing several studies supporting theories of 'natural changes', 'universal distributions', 'functional mutations' and 'deductivism' generated by epistemological principles, the author examines the predominant view that phenomena of syntactic changes can only be realistically analysed within the field of synchronic grammar. She argues against the conclusion that historical linguistics is a purely descriptive discipline and cannot produce causal explanation of linguistic changes based on a deductive theory. Such changes do not necessarily have to be accounted for by universal principles within a synchronic system, but can be satisfactorily explained by a series of interacting principles often in conflict relating to data in a diachronic area, possibly over a very long period. This methodology could lead historical linguists to reconsider the Saussurean theory of absolute independence between the synchronic and diachronic levels of linguistic factors.

LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS

81–322 O’Grady, William D. Foundations of a theory of case. *Studies in Language* (Amsterdam), 4, 2 (1980), 229–48.

A theory of case is developed, built upon the hypothesis that case systems express complex interactions between a core system of predication, which provides a characterisation of possible inter-words relations, and a number of other autonomous grammatical and semantic systems of language. The core system defines the set of constants which underlie the category of case in general while cross-linguistic differences among case systems are attributed to the diverse ways in which the core interacts with other linguistic systems to determine the specific uses of the individual case forms of a particular language. In this way, it is possible to provide a unified account of both the universal properties of the category of case (properties whose presence has been apparent to numerous researchers) and the language-particular features of individual case systems.

LINGUISTIC UNIVERSALS

81–323 Brettschneider, Gunther. Sprachtypologie und linguistische Universalienforschung. [Language typology and research into linguistic universals.] *Studium Linguistik* (Kronberg/Ts.), 8/9 (1980), 1–31.

Individual languages vary only within certain limits. Some share typological features by which it is possible to classify languages. Each language also has its own individual characteristics. A linguistic universal is a condition which is valid for all languages. Such universals connect the structure of natural languages with their functions in an explanatory way. Classical linguistic typology began in the nineteenth century and culminated in the work of Finck (1910). Such attempts tried to reduce languages to a handful of types. Later research went different ways. Greenberg tried to quantify language structure. Most linguistic universals which came to be framed as implicational universals are primarily descriptive but attempts can be made to explain them. Implicational universals led on naturally to asking the question ‘why?’ For Chomsky, universals are part of the general theory of grammar. Keenan, on the other hand, regards them as universal constraints on possible human languages and tries to discover why they exist. The questions ‘why?’ and ‘how?’ are so interwoven that they cannot be treated separately. Linguistic typology has until recently been primarily a synchronic discipline but in the meantime it has been generally accepted that historical linguistic development can provide valuable evidence for typological research. Three areas are covered by linguistic typology: the comparison of constructs, an extension of the empirical base and interdisciplinary integration.

81–324 Foley, William A. Towards a universal typology of the noun phrase. *Studies in Language* (Amsterdam), 4, 2 (1980), 171–99.

The internal structures of Adjunct + Noun constructions are investigated in several Austronesian languages. On the basis of the cross-linguistic variation of these constructions among the languages investigated a universal constraint is proposed upon the possible form that the various Adjunct + Noun constructions can assume in any given language. This universal has been termed the Bondedness Hierarchy, and this is centred around the notion of strength of a syntactic bond. If the subordination of an Adjunct of category X on the Bondedness Hierarchy is overtly marked, then the subordination of all more weakly bound categories must also be overtly marked. The Bondedness Hierarchy is simply an arrangement of the various Adjunct + Noun constructions in terms of the strength of the syntactic bond between the Adjunct type and head Noun.

81–325 Hawkins, John A. On implicational and distributional universals of word order. *Journal of Linguistics* (Cambridge), 16, 2 (1980), 193–235.

An implicational universal is of the form: if a language has some property P, then it must have Q as well. A distributional universal defines the frequency with which such co-occurrences (of P and Q, say) crop up in the languages of the world. It is here argued that both kinds of universal statement are required by the theory of Universal Grammar, in order to describe and explain the phenomena of word order. The paper revises Greenberg's pioneering statements, on the basis of the same range of data, to make them more precise. Vennemann's reanalysis of Greenberg's universals is tested against the data, and found to be inadequate, since the implications are wrongly strengthened from the form 'if P, then Q' to 'if P, then Q, and vice versa'.

A new principle of word order distribution is proposed, i.e. cross-category harmony, to account for observed co-occurrences more rigorously than Greenberg. Like Vennemann, the principle employs the concepts 'operator' and 'operand' as basic categories in a word order typology. The principle of cross-category harmony is shown to be superior both to Greenberg's statistical universals and to Vennemann's principle of natural serialisation, all of which attempt to cover the data in the original sample.

LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS

LINGUISTIC DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS *See also abstracts* 81–324, –347, –349/50, –353

81–326 Parker, Frank. Typology and word-order change. *Linguistics* (The Hague), 18, 3/4 (1980), 269–88.

Typologists have claimed that word order change results from the demands of typological consistency; i.e. inconsistent languages undergo change in order to become consistently OV or VO. This paradigm, however, is problematic, because (among other things) it assumes the consistency of the parent language yet attempts to account only for changes occurring after the parent becomes inconsistent. Here it is suggested that because of universal, obligatory processes affecting word order in embeddings, all languages contain a certain amount of inconsistency which, for example, takes the form of competing word orders in matrix and relative clauses. The competing orders in turn constitute ambiguous data which the language learner may be able to use in constructing a grammar with a new base ordering, thereby effecting word order change.

COMPUTATIONAL LINGUISTICS

81–327 Lenders, Winfried. Linguistische Datenverarbeitung – Stand der Forschung. [Computational linguistics – the state of research.] *Deutsche Sprache* (Berlin), 3 (1980), 213–64.

The first part of this research report is devoted to the development of a theory for the relatively young discipline of 'computational linguistics'. A distinction is made between the areas of 'text description' and 'simulation of linguistic behaviour'. The state of research in the Federal Republic of Germany, and some examples of projects in each area, are described.

SOCIOLINGUISTICS *See also abstract* 81–366

81–328 Bachmann, Christian. Le social pèse lourd sur le discours, un cas d'inégalité interactionnelle. [Social factors influencing discourse: a case of inequality in interaction.] *Applied Linguistics* (Oxford), 1, 3 (1980), 217–23.

This paper focuses attention on the social factors that influence discourse by associating its development with the symbolic balance of power which gives or denies participants the right to speak. The central concern is with social interactions and the structures within which they take place: with the strategies used by participants when, by means of social rules of discourse at their disposal, they achieve self-expression by clearing a way through the institutional constraints imposed by

established norms of social behaviour. The working of such strategies is demonstrated by an analysis of two samples of discourse data from the context of industrial relations in France.

81–329 Jones, Rhian and Pouder, Marie-Christine. Les échanges adulte–enfant en situation scolaire. [Adult–child interaction in the classroom.] *Langages* (Paris), 14, 59 (1980), 79–86.

Recording 111 primary schoolchildren in five classes in the Paris area during French lessons revealed that a minority of pupils were responsible for the majority of replies to the teacher. In each class the gulf between those who spoke most and those who spoke least proved wider in vocabulary lessons than in grammar lessons. Children from higher social groups spoke more frequently and more often volunteered remarks. However, the difference in the participation rate within social groups was very wide. There was no evidence that ‘freer’ teaching methods favoured middle-class children at the expense of others. Comparison with data from other countries would be of interest, in view of the striking uniformity of both content and methods prevailing in French classrooms.

81–330 Parasher, S. V. Mother tongue–English diglossia: a case study of educated Indian bilinguals’ language use. *Anthropological Linguistics* (Bloomington, Ind), 22, 4 (1980), 151–62.

This paper documents the functions of English vis-à-vis Indian mother tongues in respect of a sample of 350 educated Indian bilinguals; it is based on a sample survey conducted in Hyderabad and Secunderabad. The findings show a pattern in the use of languages. The mother tongue or first language is the most dominant language in the domain of family, while English dominates the domains of education, government and employment. Although English is dominant in the domains of friendship and transactions, the mother tongue, the regional language and Hindi are also used in certain situations in these domains. No language emerges clearly as the dominant one in the domain of neighbourhood. In each of these domains for which comparative data are available, a greater amount of English is used in written communication than in face-to-face interaction.

The bilinguals’ languages are functionally differentiated. The pattern that emerges is that only one of the co-available languages in the bilinguals’ speech repertoires tends to be used in a particular situation type. A functional allocation of the bilinguals’ languages to situation types or domains therefore exists; the bilinguals are aware of this phenomenon.

LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS

- 81-331 Pederson, Lee and Billiard, Charles E.** The urban work sheets for the LAGS Project. *Orbis* (Louvain), **28**, 1 (1979), 45-62.

The urban work sheets for the LAGS Project were organised to meet a complicated problem in representative sampling of the current population of the states bordering the Gulf of Mexico and to sustain investigation of American urban speech along the lines initiated earlier in Chicago. This major revision of the original plan followed a preliminary analysis of materials from Sector I of the LAGS territory, East Tennessee. It was impossible to represent the complicated urban communities without a significantly elaborated sampling. Much of the old fashioned and essentially rural-oriented vocabulary items of the basic work sheets had no currency among the natives of these metropolitan communities. To face this problem in a realistic way, the LAGS survey was modified to investigate the speech of 16 metropolitan areas as a separate component of the survey. Through a selective sampling of blacks and whites in the largest cities of the territory, it will be possible to describe the shared and contrastive features of the two major castes of Gulf States culture. [Work sheets consisting of different selections of questions for interviewers to put to informants in selected cities.]

PSYCHOLINGUISTICS *See abstracts* 81-334, -337, -394, -396, -399

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT OF CHILDREN *See also abstract* 81-369

- 81-332 Charney, Rosalind.** Speech roles and the development of personal pronouns. *Journal of Child Language* (Cambridge), **7**, 3 (1980), 509-28.

Pronoun mastery demands a knowledge of speech roles and an ability to identify oneself and others in those roles. Twenty-one girls' (age 1; 6 to 2; 6) knowledge of *my*, *your*, and *her* was assessed when they were speakers, addressees and non-addressed listeners. *My* and *your* were at first understood correctly only when referring to the child's own speech role: *your* was comprehended when the child was addressed, though not produced correctly by the child; *my* was used by the child as speaker, while still not comprehended correctly when used by others. The first consistent production of *her* referred to dolls. Children thus were initially aware of speech roles, but only when they themselves occupied those roles.

- 81-333 Clark, Eve V.** Convention and innovation in acquiring the lexicon. *Papers and Reports on Child Language Development* (Stanford, Calif), **19** (1980), 1-20.

The roles of conventionality and contrast are considered in the acquisition of vocabulary by children, particularly in lexical innovation or coinage. The principle of conventionality is that each word (or word-formation device) has one or more conventional meanings in a language community. Its corollary is the principle of contrast, that the conventional meanings of every two words (or word-formation devices) contrast (e.g. *enlist/list*, but not *enthroned/*to throne*).

Even very young children rely on these principles. Acquiring the idea of consistency is basic to learning a language. They ask the names of things, and make spontaneous corrections of their own word choices from about the age of two. They also realise early that the conventional meanings of words contrast: they narrow down their over-extensions of meaning and their inferences about the set of domain of new words.

The main principles which guide children's choice of words during acquisition are discussed: they are transparency (one-to-one matches of meaning and form), simplicity of surface form, regularisation (coinages modelled on known forms), and productivity (the most creative word-formation devices used by adults are those most available to children).

- 81-334 Cravatte, Astrid.** Comment les enfants expliquent-ils les mots? [How do children explain the meanings of words?] *Langages* (Paris), **14**, 59 (1980), 87-96.

Some 30 children between the ages of 5 and 12, belonging to the same socio-cultural group, were asked to explain what certain words meant to them. Their replies were analysed and the different types of response categorised. The nature of the lexeme to be defined proved more significant than the age of the child in determining the nature of the response. However, the youngest children preferred explanations deriving from their personal experience and tended to cling to one type of definition, whereas the older children, able to manipulate a greater variety of codes, gave more varied responses.

- 81-335 Keil, Frank and Carroll, John J.** The child's acquisition of 'tall': implications for an alternative view of semantic development. *Papers and Reports on Child Language Development* (Stanford, Calif), **19** (1980), 21-8.

It is proposed that many word meanings are acquired first by means of exemplars, that they are inextricably tied up with the original instances from which they are learned, and that only later are the other criterial and more invariant features abstracted. Two studies are described which support this view of semantic development and suggest a coherent account of how the meaning of 'tall' develops. Children do

LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS

not start off with an abstract concept that is missing a few features and that is therefore systematically misapplied to all objects. Rather, they seem first to learn 'tall' in highly idiosyncratic ways that are bound to particular classes of objects. As they get older, they tend to be more systematic in their uses of 'tall' with classes of objects, and their errors become partially predicted by the R + /R - distinction. They also start to associate more sophisticated concepts, such as 'narrowness', with various classes of objects. Finally, they discover that there is an abstract criterial relation that governs all uses of 'tall', and they begin to use it instead.

BILINGUALISM *See also abstract 81-330*

81-336 Andrews, Ilse. Look at bilinguals. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **18**, 4 (1980), 273-88.

A set of 10 questions was designed to elicit under what conditions and over what period eight adults had achieved their demonstrably successful bilingualism. Results showed that bilingualism can be achieved not only in early childhood but also at a later age if motivation and opportunity exist (a perfect accent is not regarded as essential). [Questions and detailed answers are given.]

81-337 Sridhar, S. N. and Sridhar, Kamal K. The syntax and psycholinguistics of bilingual code mixing. *Studies in the Linguistic Sciences* (Urbana-Champaign), **10**, 1 (1980), 203-15.

Intra-sentential switching of languages (code mixing or CM) is extremely common among bilinguals, and in certain circumstances (e.g. when all the participants in a speech situation share a bilingual background) CM may be the norm rather than the exception. CM is not random but rule-governed, and is used to achieve a variety of communicative goals. It refers to the transference of linguistic units (words, phrases, clauses) from one language into another within the same speech situation and within single sentences. Certain types of elements are more likely to be mixed than others: conjoined sentences, main clauses, subordinate clauses, various types of phrase. Among single words, nouns are most frequently mixed, followed by adjectives, adverbs and verbs. Grammatical items by themselves, such as articles, are least likely to be mixed. Bilinguals tend to agree as to the acceptability or otherwise of code-mixed sentences, which depends mainly on the structural comparability of host- and guest-language items [examples]. Syntactic rules in either language must not be broken [Dual Structure Principle]. Implications for a psycholinguistic model of bilingual information processing are that CM requires both languages to be 'on' at the same time, i.e. an interactionist model of overlapping systems is preferable to the strong linguistic independence model and the merged system model. There

probably exists a 'companion' stage in the production of mixed utterances; extra processing time is probably necessary. Transitions from one language to another are probably made between 'chunks' of ideas.

PHONOLOGY AND PHONETICS *See also abstracts 81–351, –367, –385*

81–338 Dinnsen, Daniel A. Phonological rules and phonetic explanation. *Journal of Linguistics* (Cambridge), **16**, 2 (1980), 171–91.

To explain a phonological rule it is necessary to answer the following questions: What necessitates the occurrence of the rule? Why does the rule have the particular structural description that it does? Why does the rule effect the particular structural change that it does? A number of proposals that purport to explain phonological rules in phonetic terms are examined, in order to assess how well they answer these questions. [Discussion of voicing assimilation rules, neutralisation rules effecting maximum differentiation, stop epenthesis, vowel nasalisation, and constraints on segment inventories.] All explanations that have been proposed so far fail in at least some crucial respects.

81–339 Ladefoged, Peter. What are linguistic sounds made of? *Language* (Baltimore, Md), **56**, 3 (1980), 485–502.

Linguistic phonetic aspects of languages can be described in terms of about 17 articulatory parameters, and/or a similar number of acoustic parameters. Descriptions of phonological patterns in languages involve features that are not in a one-to-one relationship with these phonetic parameters, and that cannot account for some linguistic phonetic differences among languages. Speakers and listeners producing and interpreting linguistic events probably use something like the proposed phonetic parameters. There is no necessity for most phonological features to be part of mental representations.

81–340 Weismer, Gary. Control of the voicing distinction for intervocalic stops and fricatives: some data and theoretical considerations. *Journal of Phonetics* (London), **8**, 4 (1980), 427–38.

This paper represents an attempt to integrate some new data with previously published information on control of the voicing distinction for obstruents. The experiment reported here deals with the duration of the voiceless interval associated with voiceless stops and fricatives in the intervocalic, prestressed position. The voiceless interval is defined as that time-segment during which the vocal folds are not vibrating. For stops, this interval will generally include the duration of the closure

LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS

interval plus the voice-onset time (VOT). In the case of fricatives, the voiceless interval includes the duration of both the supraglottal constriction and any aspiration which precedes a following vowel. The results of this experiment demonstrated that the duration of the voiceless interval is independent of obstruent manner- and place-of-articulation. From these findings and consideration of previously reported fiberoptic and electromyographic data, it is concluded that the devoicing *gesture* is the same for stops and fricatives, and that the timing of this gesture is executed in a preprogrammed, ballistic fashion. Arguments are subsequently developed to the effect that (1) speakers do not, and need not, control VOT in a continuous fashion, and (2) speakers may sometimes structure supraglottal time programmes in terms of laryngeal timing demands, as evidenced by control of the voicing distinction for fricatives.

TRANSLATION

81-341 Bathgate, R. H. An operational model of the translation process. *Incorporated Linguist* (London), 19, 4 (1980), 113-14.

A new model of the translation process, called the operational model, is presented. This comprises the various phases of activity leading from a source-language text to the equivalent target-language text, viz: tuning, analysis, understanding, terminology, restructuring, checking and discussion. The significance of each phase is briefly explained. In the discussion, the genesis of the model is briefly recounted; and it is suggested that the operational model, thanks to its completeness, provides a useful framework for consolidation of the theory of the translation process by comparison of the various translation models proposed so far.

81-342 Brinkmann, Karl-Heinz. Present and future technical aids to easier communication in foreign languages. *Babel* (Budapest), 26, 2 (1980), 67-75.

Technical aids to the translation of scientific and technical texts are discussed from the point of view of the author's experience in a large industrial translating facility. Information about the firm's products has to be conveyed via translation to clients all round the world. Major projects have to be handled by a group of translators, hence the need for uniform terminology.

Machine translation is no longer expected to be able to produce high-quality work; it is often not even adequate at the rudimentary level of 'information purposes'. The correctness rate of existing automatic translating systems is less than 75 per cent, i.e. quite useless without post-editing, a luxury which many firms cannot afford. A more realistic solution is the use of terminology data banks, 14 of which were in

existence in 1978, including Siemens' TEAM databank. Time-saving devices include alphabetical sorting of inventories, selection of terminology by any given criteria, screening of machine-readable texts for new terminology. Entire word-fields can be called up and displayed on the video terminal. Sub-banks can each accommodate up to eight languages, and parts of each bank can be joined to parts of another. The TEAM bank provides access to some 500 000 entries; and offers the same number of entries to partners in the scheme. The user, who is mainly the translator, has some 1 000 000 terminological units at his disposal, over the video screen or other type of terminal. The system can also match terms in the source language with equivalents in the target language, produce text-related lists, glossaries and dictionaries. [Uses of the data bank for lexicography and language training, and computerised text editing and processing.]

81-343 Duff, Alan. Professional language or jargon? *Incorporated Linguist* (London), 19, 4 (1980), 123-8.

The article examines certain of the difficulties encountered by the translator when he is required to translate jargon. A necessary distinction is drawn between professional language, i.e. the legitimate use of specialist terms, and jargon, i.e. debased professional language or thought expressed in 'ready-made' language. Alternative translations of several passages are provided in order to illustrate how jargon may either be eliminated from or inadvertently enter into the translation. Reference is made mainly to disciplines outside the pure sciences.

TEXT LINGUISTICS

81-344 Helbig, Gerhard. Zur Stellung und zu Problem der Textlinguistik. [On the position and problems of text linguistics.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), 17, 5 (1980), 257-66.

The beginning of text linguistics was due to the discovery that many linguistic phenomena, e.g. the selection of articles, pronominalisation, anaphora, sentence stress, needed to be dealt with by the notion of 'text', a unit higher than the sentence. Text linguistics can be divided into text syntax, text semantics and text pragmatics. Its predecessors were rhetoric, stylistics and functional sentence perspective. Text linguistics is a reaction against the internal systemic linguistics, and represents a deeper consideration of language as a means of communication. Many definitions of a text have been suggested but basic to all of them is the assertion that a text is a coherent sequence of sentences. This coherence can be at the syntactic, semantic or pragmatic level. Another important aspect is textualisation. Uniformity in conditions of textualisation is the prerequisite for text coherence. Some linguists distinguish between text linguistics and text theory, the latter giving

LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS

more weight to communication. Both approaches are complementary and not mutually exclusive. The problem of text types has not yet been fully solved. Only in a few cases can text linguistic insights be used directly in foreign-language teaching.

81–345 Moskal'skaya, O. I. Семантика текста. [The semantics of text.] *Вопросы языкознания* (Moscow), 6 (1980), 32–42.

This article is concerned with the semantics of text understood as linguistic units higher than the sentence (microtext), as opposed to text understood as a complete discourse (macrotext), the analysis of which is seen as essentially the concern of the discipline concerned with the content of such texts (literary criticism, law, the physical sciences, etc.). Two major types of problem are recognised: on the one hand, text semantics has to come to terms with the communicative intention behind the text—a problem currently studied in such diverse disciplines as stylistics, communication theory, pragmatics, speech act theory, etc. On the other hand, it has to classify the relations between sentences in a text. The complex sentence is seen as a model for this kind of study, the meaning and function of conjunctions being particularly important. A small sample of text is analysed in terms of the relations holding between its sentences.

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS *See also abstracts* 81–328, –360, –363, –382, –399

81–346 Holec, Henri. Did you say 'oral interactive discourse'? *Applied Linguistics* (Oxford), 1, 3 (1980), 189–99.

Two types of discourse can be distinguished: one whose text (a set of verbal and non-verbal messages) is constructed in real time and has an internal temporal structure; and one whose text is dissociated in time from the process of construction but proceeds parallel to it, with no internal temporal structure. To call the first type 'oral' and the second 'written' is insufficiently explicit: oral discourse is constructed in real time and written discourse is not thus constrained. Interaction means not merely two or more participants influencing one another, but should be based on an analysis of the types of role played by participants. 'Interactive discourse' refers to discourse which is the mutual responsibility of all the participants who contribute in turn, whereas 'non-interactive discourse' refers to a single participant who is responsible for the whole of the discourse. The distinction is further refined by being applied to oral and written discourse [some examples are discussed].