

## LINGUISTIC THEORY

**82-206 Charron, William C.** (St Louis U.). Some legal definitions and semiotic: toward a general theory. *Semiotica* (The Hague), **32**, 1/2 (1980), 35-51.

This paper focuses on two legal terms, *death* and *cruelty*, and the problems raised by attempts at legal definition which are found in Supreme Court cases in the United States. For example, the supposed vagueness of the phrase *cruel and unusual punishment* used in the Eighth Amendment meant that no litigant challenging the constitutionality of a particular punishment met with success throughout the nineteenth century. Such vagueness is not always a defect, however, since the original lawmaker cannot foresee the future contingencies to which the law must be applied. The difficulty of defining *death* is a case in point: the original wording has become problematic as a result of unforeseeable medical techniques. It is clear that a pragmatic conventionalist, rather than an essentialist, approach to definition is suitable.

It is concluded that, for a workable theory of legal definition, legal language should be taken instrumentally. On this principle, the recommended procedure is not to construe terms in advance of novel situations and changing circumstances, except where individual rights are threatened.

**82-207 Frumkina, R. M.** 'Язык и мышление' как проблема лингвистического эксперимента. ['Language and thought' as an experimental linguistic problem.] *Серия литературы и языка* (Moscow), **40**, 3 (1981), 225-36.

The relationship of language and thought, one of the perennial problems of linguistics and psychology, is considered from the point of view of the sorts of experimental evidence which might be brought to bear on it. Extensive discussion is given to the problematic status of introspection and behaviour as the two possible foci for experimentation in this area, the conclusion being that they are complementary and equally useful sources of data.

Two sets of experiments are then considered which bear on this problem. Work on the sign language of the deaf has shown it to have similar expressive power to normal spoken language, and to support as rich a conceptual system. Conversely, work on schizophrenics has shown that their problems with conceptualisation are reflected in their use of language to name objects.

**82-208 Hajičová, Eva.** Agentive or actor/bearer? *Theoretical Linguistics* (Berlin), **6**, 2/3 (1979) [publ. 1980], 173-90.

The plausibility is examined of the hypothesis that a single tectogrammatical (deep structure) participant can be postulated, which would be regarded as the primary meaning of the surface subject. If operational criteria concerning possible combinations of syntactic units are used and the tectogrammatical representation is conceived of as

differing from the surface structure only in case of clearly substantiated distinctions, then the hypothesis obtains strong support. It appears useful to assign all verbs having a single participant slot in their case frame only a single type of participant (cf. Tesnière's 'first actant') on the level of language meaning. The difference between such units as Agentive, Experiencer, Theme, Locative (if rendered by surface subject) belongs then to a layer of organisation of factual knowledge ('scenarios') rather than to the language structure. Such a treatment allows for a more simple and economic formal description, avoiding the necessity of such devices as crossed and embedded brackets.

**82-209 Kempson, Ruth M. and Cormack, Annabel** (SOAS, U. of London). Ambiguity and quantification. *Linguistics and Philosophy* (Dordrecht), **4** (1981), 259-309.

The paper examines the kind of ambiguity found in sentences containing quantifiers, e.g. *every, some, three*. It has been widely assumed that because *Every boy loves some girl* can express distinct propositions, then it is ambiguous. It is here argued that, on the contrary, such sentences should rather be analysed as having a single semantic representation, with different interpretations derived from general rules. It is further claimed that linguistic theory must make a distinction between logical ambiguity (where a single sentence expresses distinct propositions) and linguistic ambiguity (where a single sentence corresponds to distinct sentences). In the proposed model there is a two-level semantic characterisation for every sentence, so that the interaction between the linguistic characterisation and logical ambiguity is entirely systematic. It is predicted that systematic ambiguity, wherever it is found, will bear similar analysis, namely, a single semantic representation, and general rules operating on that representation.

**82-210 Kittay, Eva** (U. of New York at Stony Brook) and **Lehrer, Adrienne** (U. of Arizona). Semantic fields and the structure of metaphor. *Studies in Language* (Amsterdam), **5**, 1 (1981), 31-63.

The paper claims that the analysis of metaphor is amenable to treatment in terms of semantic field theory, which is based on the assumption that meaning is partly determined by other related words in the lexicon. The view of metaphor taken in this study is often called the interaction theory of metaphor, i.e. the interaction of two conceptually distinct domains. It is argued that in metaphor the lexical items from one field are transferred to another semantic field, and that the structure of semantic relations of the 'donor' field either provides or reorganises the structure of the 'recipient' field.

Three poems (Wordsworth's *Venetian Republic*, Donne's *The Bait*, Shelly's *Song to the Men of England*) and one prose passage (extract from Jowett's translation of Plato's *Theaetetus*) are analysed to illustrate the claim that semantic fields interact; in particular, that the donor field imposes a new structure on another conceptual domain. The efficacy of a metaphor varies according to how it productively exploits the homologous relations. If the matching of the fields is too easy, the result is a banal

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metaphor, lacking in cognitive interest. An effective metaphor has heuristic power, suggesting new connections and novel courses of action.

### **82-211 Manor, Ruth.** A language for questions and answers. *Theoretical Linguistics* (Berlin), **6**, 1 (1979), 1-21.

A semantic treatment of questions and answers is provided, keeping in mind the broader objective that the analysis will be used in a pragmatic theory of dialogues between several participants who assert propositions, ask questions and answer them. A fully typed modal language, containing both assertoric and interrogative sentences, is developed. A distinction is made between sentences and what they express in a given situation; namely, in a given case, a sentence (assertoric or interrogative) may assert a proposition or pose a question (respectively), or alternatively, it may not express anything, i.e., it may be non-assertive or not pose any question in the case under consideration. Thus, the semantics allows for 'gaps', which in turn enables us to have a Strawsonian treatment of pragmatic presuppositions (of both assertions and questions), as well as including conditional forms (assertions and questions) within our language.

Questions are identified with the sets of their possible answers while answers are propositions. Answers are distinguished from replies, the latter being sentences satisfying pragmatic conditions, which may or may not, in a given case, assert a possible answer (to the question asked).

### **82-212 Pullum, Geoffrey K. and Borsley, Robert D.** Comments on the two central claims of 'trace theory'. *Linguistics* (The Hague), **18**, 1/2 (1980), 73-104.

The two central claims of the loose cluster of conjectures known collectively as 'trace theory' are: (1) that there is an interesting parallel between transformational movement and certain types of anaphoric process in natural languages, and (2) that under 'trace theory' all semantic rules can apply to surface structure (instead of to deep structure or to some combination of structures at different levels). It is argued here that there is no justification for the confidence that 'trace theory' enthusiasts place in these claims. Movement cannot be shown to parallel closely anaphora in English or in languages generally, and semantic rules (rules for translating syntactic structures into representations at the level of Logical Form) can only operate on surface structures alone if they are permitted to miss certain significant generalisations and to reverse quite unnecessarily the effect of various transformations. Despite the rhetoric about explanatory power which often accompanies presentations of 'trace theory' material, the current interest in it seems premature if not misguided.

### **82-213 Saksena, Anuradha** (Los Angeles). The affected agent. *Language* (Baltimore, Md), **56**, 4 (1980), 812-26.

It is commonly believed that agents constitute a single primitive category, distinct from other categories such as patient. This paper challenges such an assumption, arriving at three conclusions: (a) A variety of rules classify agents into affected v.

non-affected types. (b) These rules group affected agents with other affected roles such as patient, dative, and experiencer. (c) The affected/non-affected distinction is more basic than role distinctions such as agent and patient. Among the correlates claimed here for the affected non-affected contrast is 'cause' case-marking, an area that has attracted recent controversy in Comrie (1976) and Cole (1976).

## PHONETICS AND PHONOLOGY

**82-214 Brown, Roger** (U. of Edinburgh). Cognitive implications of labels for voices. *Journal of the International Phonetic Association* (London), **10**, 1/2 (1980), 28-44.

An experiment is reported which investigates the acceptability for English speakers of various syntactic constructions in conjunction with labels for voices (Laver, 1974). A regularity is observed in the co-occurrence possibilities; subjects differentiate between labels for temporal aspects of speech (tempo, continuity and rhythmicity) and for non-temporal (pitch, loudness and quality) in terms of the constructions which may accompany them. No purely syntactic motivation is found for this regularity and it is suggested instead that it is indicative of a basic phonetic difference between cognitively governed temporal parameters in speech and physiologically determined non-temporal parameters. This view is supported by examples from other languages.

**82-215 Harris, M. O. and others** (Bell Laboratories, Murray Hill, N.J.). Boundary perception in fluent speech. *Journal of Phonetics* (London), **9**, 1 (1981), 1-18.

A perceptual technique is described for locating boundaries in continuous reading, preliminary to an eventual definition of 'boundary'. Nine subjects listened repeatedly to taped readings by five speakers of a 3549-word passage, marking copies of the text to show where they heard boundaries. Each listener had to invent and briefly describe a system of marks; no definition of 'boundary' was provided. The marks were tabulated word-by-word as binary choices.

Pairwise comparison of the listeners showed 82% agreement about the locations of the marks. This confirms the 81% three-way agreement reported earlier in a pilot study, with three listeners and fewer text words. Other analyses compare inter-speaker consistency, sort the data by syntactic function at the lexical level, and describe the situation at the subject-verb boundary. Distribution of the data differs very strikingly from chance.

**82-216 Jassem, Wiktor** (Polish Academy of Sciences) and **Gibbon, Dafydd** (Us. of Bielefeld and Göttingen). Re-defining English accent and stress. *Journal of the International Phonetic Association* (London), **10**, 1/2 (1980), 1-16.

Previous attempts to define the notion of stress are surveyed and found wanting in various ways. An outline is given of an approach which explicitly attempts to avoid the pitfalls which have previously been encountered. The main descriptive strategy

involved is to distinguish between and define systematically distinct categories, termed 'accent' and 'stress' respectively, the former being a partly rhythmical, partly intonational category, and the latter being an abstract morpho-syntactic property. This provides a sufficiently differentiated framework for capturing on the one hand the relative autonomy of suprasegmental systems, and on the other their relation to other aspects of phonology and syntax without circularity of argument and without rigid bonding of suprasegmental patterning to patterning in other parts of the language system.

**82-217 Lindau, Mona.** *The story of /r/. UCLA Working Papers in Phonetics* (Los Angeles), **51** (1980), 114-19.

A phonetic analysis of r-sounds across a variety of languages, accents and speakers reveals that although the sounds in question may be phonologically similar, they display considerable dissimilarities phonetically, to the extent that there is no single phonetic property common to all. Why then should they be recognised as similar sounds phonologically? It is proposed that r-sounds form a phonological class on the basis of the fact that each member of the class resembles some other member with respect to some property. Thus trills and flaps resemble each other in the duration of the pulses involved, uvular trills and uvular fricatives have similar formant patterns, and so on.

R-sounds are therefore seen as one example of a case where it is not profitable to search for a single phonetic correlate that underlies the grouping of several sounds into a single phonological class.

## SOCIOLINGUISTICS

**82-218 Bickerton, Derek** (U. of Hawaii). *What happens when we switch? York Papers in Linguistics* (York), **9** (1980), 41-56.

The paper examines the phenomenon of situational code-switching in the creole-English continuum of Hawaii. The database is tape recordings of a male working-class peer group in a plantation village on the island of Kauai; in particular two middle-aged speakers in five different social settings. Code-switching is characterised by certain grammatical variables, such as plural and past markers. The replacement of creole forms by their standard equivalents is an index of the formality of the setting. This replacement is seldom total; the exclusive use of creole forms is almost equally rare. Social context is not monolithic: every situation is a mixture of elements, some of which may be perceived as more, some as less formal. Moreover, a situation may be intrinsically ambiguous: both types of perception may be reflected in language use. The findings of this analysis suggest that the linguistic acknowledgement of role differences is a natural process which will be expressed through the manipulation of variable frequencies where more formal channels are lacking.

**82-219 Jernudd, Björn H.** (Culture Learning Institute, East-West Center). Planning language treatment: linguistics for the third world. *Language in Society* (Cambridge), 10, 1 (1981), 43-52.

The adoption of linguistics at institutions of higher learning in its present international disciplinary form, and in its expression through the medium of English (because English is a major foreign or second language in much of the world and by far the dominant language for the discipline of linguistics), can be contrary to the public good in less developed countries and merging speech communities. Linguistics in its current international disciplinary form serves needs different from those of emerging speech communities, where a new language treatment system ought to be created by a new cadre of caretakers of the community's language resources.

**82-220 Kachru, Braj B.** 'Socially realistic linguistics': the Firthian tradition. *Studies in the Linguistic Sciences* (Urbana-Champaign), 10, 1 (1980), 85-111.

This paper presents the 'socially realistic' aspects of Firthian linguistics in the context of the concerns of linguistics in the 1980s. In the 1930s the British linguist J. R. Firth proposed several concepts, especially a reinterpretation of the Malinowskian concept of the 'context of situation', within a linguistic framework for the study of language in context. Firth and other members of the 'London School' of linguists, reject the dichotomy between form and function. The British linguistic tradition is briefly discussed and Firth's and Malinowski's uses of the concept 'context of situation' are differentiated. Firth's terms such as 'the sociology of language' and 'sociological linguistics' are discussed with reference to their use in current sociolinguistic literature. The present positions of the Firthians and the 'neo-Firthians' are presented. In the present search for new functional approaches to language study, the revival of interest in Firthian linguistics, both in the U.S.A. and in Britain, is a rediscovering of what was a lost paradigm in the 1950s and early 1960s.

**82-221 Rado, Marta and Lewis, Ramon** (La Trobe U.). Exploring student attitudes in Australia towards ethnic language maintenance. *ITL* (Louvain), 49/50 (1980), 117-36.

Both official opinion about ethnic language maintenance and the ethnic community's views favour experimentation with community language teaching and bilingual education for the children of non-English-speaking immigrants in Australia. Language maintenance programmes should not be seen as a remedy for the disadvantaged but as an enrichment for the whole school population. Students' own attitudes towards such language learning are important. The study reported here used a scale to measure the attitudes of students to language itself rather than to its speakers. The responses of different ethnic groups were compared. The students were also asked to assess the attitudes of friends, parents and teachers.

The attitudes of bilinguals were more positive than those of monolinguals but substantially different. Monolinguals will need to be educated into more favourable attitudes towards ethnic languages if they are to give anything more than mild support to language maintenance programmes. All respondents accepted the belief that (a)

bilinguals have a right to their ethnic heritage and (b) bilingualism is useful in Australia. Monolinguals accepted the notion that bilingualism is bad for Australia because it prevents the integration of migrants; bilinguals rejected this view. Answers to questions on private language use suggested that there is tolerance for private use but prejudice towards public use of ethnic languages. A congruence was found between attitudes of students and their parents, teachers and friends.

**82-222 Romaine, Suzanne** (U. of Birmingham). A critical overview of the methodology of urban British sociolinguistics. *English World-Wide* (Heidelberg), 1, 2 (1980), 163-98.

An overview of some of the methodological aspects of sociolinguistic theory with special reference to their application in empirical research on varieties of urban British English. Among the studies discussed in detail are Labov (1966) on New York City, Trudgill (1974) on Norwich, Macaulay (1977) on Glasgow, Romaine (1975, 1978) on Edinburgh, and Milroy (1980) on Belfast.

The following methodological problems are treated with reference to these sociolinguistic studies: (1) selection of speakers, circumstances and linguistic variables, (2) data collection, (3) identification of linguistic variables and their variants, (4) analysis of data by quantitative methods, and (5) interpretation of results. It is argued that there is now a distinctively British, as opposed to North American, approach to the study of language in the community, which has arisen through sociolinguistic investigations of urban varieties of British English.

**82-223 Spolsky, Bernard** (Bar-Ilan U.). Bilingualism and literacy. *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), 37, 3 (1981), 475-85.

A sociolinguistics of literacy is starting to develop that will help distinguish between the implications of linguistics for individual literacy and for societal literacy. One particularly important question has been to understand the choice of a language for literacy, for it is now becoming clear that teaching literacy in the vernacular is only one option. There are historical and contemporary cases of societies that exhibit a special kind of diglossia, with one language used for speech and other for writing. To account for this phenomenon, a model is proposed that has as its prime elements differentially valued statuses within a speech community associated with language varieties and registers.

## PSYCHOLINGUISTICS

**82-224 Allendorff, Sally and Wade, Henning** (U. of Kiel). Some over-generalisations in the L1 acquisition of interrogative pronouns. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), 19, 1 (1981), 31-44.

Data from three L1 German children are described, showing how they acquire the semantic content/category associated with a given interrogative pronoun in adult usage, before they acquire the morphological item. The lack of one-to-one correspondence between what the child wants to ask and his pronoun inventory results in

overgeneralisations. There seem to be specific linguistic as well as cognitive restrictions between the various cognitive–semantic features/categories and the ways in which they are expressed. Overall developmental regularities are discussed for *wo*, *was*, *wer*.

**82–225 Carrell, Patricia L.** (Southern Illinois U. at Carbondale). Children's understanding of indirect requests: comparing child and adult comprehension. *Journal of Child Language* (Cambridge), **8**, 2 (1981), 329–45.

Based on Clark and Lucy's (1975) study of adult comprehension of different types of indirect requests, this study addresses the questions: 'How well are children aged 4 to 7 able to understand these same indirect requests?' and 'How does the relation between request type and ease of comprehension compare from children to adults?' Results showed: (1) these children are able to comprehend a wide variety of indirect requests; (2) there is a general developmental pattern of acquisition; (3) interrogative forms are more difficult than declarative forms; (4) conveyed negative requests are more difficult than corresponding conveyed positive requests; (5) children are heavily influenced by the surface polarity of the conveyed request; and (6) the relationship between request type and ease of comprehension is strikingly similar for both children and adults.

**82–226 Charbonneau-Dagenais, Aline** (U. of Montreal). Essai de définition du bilinguisme. [An attempt to define bilingualism.] *Bulletin of the CAAL* (Montreal), **1**, 1 (1979), 31–8.

Various attempts to define bilingualism – which has proved exceedingly difficult of definition – are examined. There is more than one kind of bilingualism and any definition must take into account a number of psychological, social, cultural and linguistic variables. Bilingualism is when an individual is able to communicate with speakers belonging to two different language groups by means of two distinct linguistic systems without having necessarily attained a high level of linguistic competence; bilingualism is open to all.

**82–227 Daiute, Colette A.** (Teachers Coll., Columbia U.) Psycholinguistic foundations of the writing process. *Research in the Teaching of English* (Urbana, Ill), **15**, 1 (1981), 5–22.

This paper presents a rationale for studying psycholinguistic aspects of the writing process and outlines a model of writing, based on a psycholinguistic model of talking. An analytic study of 450 syntax errors written by college students served as evidence to test the plausibility of the writing model. These errors conform to a taxonomy of 12 apparently different types of syntax problems. Analysis of the words, clauses, and syntactic structures of the errors suggests that natural short-term memory limits constrain writers as they compose multi-clause sentences. The investigation of errors demonstrates the usefulness of studying writing as derivative of normal speaking processes. Such a view offers researchers and teachers a theoretically based understanding of how psychological factors affect writers.

**82-228 Lincoln, P. C.** (U. of Auckland). Dual-lingualism: passive bilingualism in action. *Te Reo* (Auckland), **22** (1979), 65-72.

'Dual-lingualism' is a particular type of bilingualism in which two speakers of two different languages each consistently speak one language in response to utterances in the other language (i.e. each speaker is passively bilingual). Two cases in the Solomons involving radically different languages are described, which involve Banoni-Siwai dual-lingualism and Nggae-Savosavo dual-lingualism. Three basic kinds of conversation involving bilingual individuals are possible: dual-lingual (pure or reverse) monolingual and code-switching (solo or dual). Dual-lingualism is the easiest type. Terms previously applied to this behaviour are not precise enough (e.g. 'bilingual situation', 'semi-bilingualism').

**82-229 McTear, Michael F.** Getting it done: the development of children's abilities to negotiate request sentences in peer interaction. *Belfast Working Papers in Language and Linguistics* (Belfast, N. Ireland), **4** (1980), 1-29.

The paper presents the results of an investigation of requests for action in the language of two pre-school children. Two girls, aged about four, were videotaped at three-monthly intervals over two years during spontaneous play at both homes. Requests for actions, or directives, may take a variety of grammatical forms, viz. declaratives (*The door is open*), interrogatives (*are you cold?*) and imperatives (*give me a match*). The identification of conversational acts is a problem for both participant and analyst; the interpretation of particular forms depends on many contextual factors. The methodological issues are discussed in detail, and illustrated by examples from the study.

The nature of conversational interaction means that an adequate analysis must go beyond the isolated request-response exchange to consider the whole sequence in which the exchange is embedded. For example, the requestee can, by a variety of means, turn down the request, or even try to close the sequence by a change of topic; the requester may then re-state or re-initiate the request, perhaps in a mitigated form. In such cases it is necessary to treat requests as negotiated events. Within this framework the paper focuses on the way sequences develop and terminate. The main factor determining variation was not, as in previous studies, rank of addressee (since this remained constant) but the nature of the request.

**82-230 Reich, Shuli S.** (Dept. of Psychiatry, Middlesex Hospital Medical Sch., London). Significance of pauses for speech perception. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research* (New York), **9**, 4 (1980), 379-89.

Pauses can be used to facilitate certain operations involved in the production and in the perception of speech. In the case of speech perception, pauses have been found to improve the accuracy of detection and the recall of lists of digits and letters. The aim of the present experiments was to examine the effects of pause time on the perception of sentences. In experiment I, a semantic categorisation task was used and in experiment II a sentence recall task. The results indicated that in sentences containing pauses between clauses, words were categorised more rapidly (experiment I) and

propositions were recalled more accurately (experiment II) than in sentences containing pauses within the clause. The results are interpreted in the context of existing models of speech processing, and the significance of pause time for cognitive activity is discussed.

**82-231 Studdert-Kennedy, Michael** (Queens College, City U. of New York). *Language and Speech* (Hampton Hill, Mddx), 23, 1 (1980), 45-66.

The paper reviews selected studies in speech perception, most of them published in the past five years. Topics include the contributions of prosody to segmental perception, the problems of segmentation and invariance, categorical perception of speech and non-speech, the role of feature detectors, the scaling of speech sounds to an auditory-articulatory space, acoustic phonetic dependencies within the syllable, the contributions of higher order (non-phonetic) factors in the comprehension of fluent speech, and cerebral specialisation. The bias of the paper is toward viewing phonetic segments as abstract processes that link sound and articulation, and that become available to the listener through specialised sensorimotor mechanisms.

**82-232 Voorwinde, Stephen.** A lexical and grammatical study in Dutch-English-German trilingualism. *ITL* (Louvain), 52 (1981), 3-30.

The aim was to test the assumption that the nature of multilingualism is basically the same as that of bilingualism. A trilingual is defined as 'a speaker of one language who can produce complete and meaningful utterances in other languages'. An experiment was carried out to test the following hypotheses: (1) Trilingualism differs from bilingualism with regard to: (a) transference and (b) internally conditioned (i.e. depending on linguistic factors) switching. (2) The lexical material of a particular language A is influenced more by E, the language more similar to it, whereas its concepts and sentence patterns are influenced more by C, the speaker's more dominant language (if these are not the same). (3) A speaker of languages A, B and C performs differently in language B, which he uses only when speaking to A B bilinguals, from the way he performs in language C, the standard of which he is attempting to learn and to imitate.

The German spoken by two groups of subjects was compared: (a) a trilingual (experimental) group consisting of speakers of English and Dutch who were learning German and (b) a bilingual (control) group consisting of English speakers learning German. The experimental subjects were given an interview consisting of a German, an English and a Dutch section and lasting about one hour. A proposition test was included as a measure of transference (i.e. influence of one language on another). Control subjects only took part in the German section.

The data are discussed at the lexical level and at the grammatical level [details]. The most significant findings were: (i) phenomena related to trilingualism were more complex than, rather than basically different from, those related to bilingualism. (ii) The extent of the influence of language A on language B in the speech of a group of trilinguals depends partly on how dominant language A is for that group. (iii) If bilinguals learn language A with a view to acquitting its standard, there may, in certain

areas, be no more transference in their use of this language than in their use of language B, which is their more dominant language, but which they use only for communication with bilinguals.

## PRAGMATICS

**82-233 Ferrara, Alessandro.** Appropriateness conditions for entire sequences of speech acts. *Journal of Pragmatics* (Amsterdam), **4**, 4 (1980), 321-40.

This paper discusses whether the concept of appropriateness can meaningfully be applied to whole sequences of speech acts, and can be kept theoretically distinct from the conjunction of the appropriateness values assigned to the speech acts included in the sequence. It is argued that this is possible; the paper then spells out the general conditions of appropriateness of speech act sequences as well as the specific conditions of appropriateness relevant to each type of speech act sequence that may occur in conversation. Nine basic types of speech act sequences are: initial greeting; howareyou; non-topical; topical; encounter-evaluative; arrangement; closing greeting; channel-clearing, and emergency sequences. Some considerations are offered about the possibility and the desirability of developing speech act theory into a theoretical framework capable of raising empirical questions about the use of language in social contexts.

**82-234 Fraser, Bruce** (Boston U.). Conversational mitigation. *Journal of Pragmatics* (Amsterdam), **4**, 4 (1980), 341-50.

Mitigation is defined not as a particular type of speech act but the modification of a speech act: the reduction of certain unwelcome effects which a speech act has on the hearer. Within mitigation there appear to be two types: self-serving and altruistic. These are defined and examples are given. Finally, a variety of strategies used by speakers to indicate their intent to mitigate the force of an utterance are presented. These include the use of indirectness in performing a speech act, the use of distancing techniques, disclaimers, parenthetical verbs, tag questions and hedges.

**82-235 Harris, Grant and others** (McMaster U.). On the role of the speaker's expectations in interpersonal communication. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior* (New York), **19** (1980), 597-607.

The paper reports two experiments, which investigated the accuracy of verbal communication between people. The results indicate that communication is most accurate if the sender correctly anticipates the context in which the receiver attempts to understand the communication. If the sender expects the receiver will have more or less information than is actually available, communication suffers. Further, different sorts of information serve different functions. If the sender transmits general categorical information, that information is useful for the receiver in making a category selection, but is of no use in discriminating among categorically related alternatives. However, if the sender transmits information related to specific items, that information

is useful for discriminating among alternatives, but less useful for categorical choices. The results are interpreted in terms of a contractual-contextual model of communication.

**82-236 Nowakowska, Maria** (Polish Academy of Sciences, Warsaw). Formal constraints upon dialogues and discussions. *Discourse Processes* (New Jersey), **3**, 4 (1980), 399–418.

A major difficulty in formalising linguistic dialogue interaction is the uncertainty arising from various factors. Proposals are advanced for capturing at least some of these factors in logical representations: (a) topic/subtopic arrangement; (b) turn allocation; (c) participants' competence; (d) discourse goals; (e) semantic constraints; (f) psychological constraints; (g) pragmatic constraints; and (h) emotional dynamics. Though simplified and idealised, these representations can act as defaults applying to what is normally, but not necessarily, the case when people engage in discussions.

**82-237 Richards, Jack C.** (Chinese U. of Hong Kong). Talking across cultures. *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), **37**, 3 (1981), 572–82.

Conversation is viewed as a mechanism for social interaction. Several perspectives for discussing the social functions of conversation are reviewed drawing on recent work in the fields of conversational analysis, social psychology, and linguistic anthropology. The choice of speaker-hearer roles influences the system of self-presentation employed by the participants during conversational interaction; linguistically this may be manifested in various ways, including degrees of talkativeness or taciturnity, strategies of affirmative or deferential politeness, and choice of topic and speech act. The achievement of social meaning during conversation is thus a negotiated process. Different cultures may have contrasting styles of conversational interaction, and differences in the linguistic behaviour associated with such dimensions as presentation of self, selection of speech acts, communication of illocutionary meanings, and choice of politeness strategies may lead to cross-cultural misunderstandings. Examples of how such misunderstanding may arise are given.

**82-238 Short, M. H.** (U. of Lancaster). Discourse analysis and the analysis of drama. *Applied Linguistics* (Oxford), **2**, 2 (1981), 180–202.

There is a need in dramatic criticism to concentrate on dramatic texts, rather than analysing only performance, in order to cope with the meanings produced by texts. Ways of applying different types of discourse analysis to dramatic texts are briefly illustrated for speech acts and presuppositions, and general discourse relations are discussed. Because these categories are relevant for the explication of social relations they are relevant for the study of drama, as is the sociolinguistic study of status and terms of address. [Illustrative examination of a sketch by Pinter.] A pedagogic application for the EFL classroom is the comparison of dramatic texts with recorded conversation to highlight what goes on in conversation.

**82–239 Streeck, Jurgen.** *Speech acts in interaction: a critique of Searle. Discourse Processes* (Norwood, NJ), **3** (1980), 133–54.

The production of speech acts is best studied as belonging to the broader domain of human interaction. The regulation of interpersonal relations is achieved with the help of speech acts, each production of which counts as an action (social event) belonging to a set of multi-levelled normative structures. Searle's theory of speech acts equates the pragmatic study of discourse with the semantic study of sentences. Five underlying principles of theory are examined against empirical data and found inadequate. Thus illocutionary force does not belong unequivocally to single contributions of individual speakers, but depends on the relation of a speech act to its context of use. Searle's rule model, based on the notion of intentional action, does not account for the interactive aspect of flexibility displayed by the use of speech acts in actual discourse.