Language and Linguistics

LINGUISTIC THEORY

74-74   **Allan, Keith.** Complement noun phrases and prepositional phrases, adjectives and verbs. *Foundations of Language* (Dordrecht), **10**, 3 (1973), 377–97.

Arguments of Lakoff and Lyons are cited that adjectives function, like verbs, as predicators. The same set of arguments, with some additional ones, are adduced to show that complement NP and PP also function as predicators. These arguments [accompanied by many examples] are based on lexical and semantico-syntactic similitude between established predicators and complement NP and PP, and on evidence that the same set of structural constraints and conditions for transformations apply equally to established predicators and to complement NP and PP. The copula is defined as the semantically empty marker of predicative function in those predicators which are not verbs. Hence, although typically adjectives and verbs predicate nouns, groups having as their headword either adjective, verb or noun may function as predicators if they are in predicative form, or as arguments if they are in nominal form. [References.]

74-75   **Anderson, John.** Universal quantifiers. *Lingua* (Amsterdam), **31**, 2/3 (1973), 125–76.

Using his own version of a dependency grammar, Anderson discusses structural relationships between quantifiers. Some are well-known: *few = not many; none = not any; any* is a variant of *some* when Neg asymmetrically commands it. There is also a relationship between universal quantifiers *all, every* and *some*: *the girls didn't choose* SOME [with emphatic stress] *of the books = the girls chose all of the books = there were none* [= not some] *of the books which the girls*

didn't choose; *everybody got an apple = there was nobody* [= not somebody] *who didn't get an apple*. Notice how among the equivalent sentences those containing universal quantifiers have absorbed an existential quantifier and double negation; in their underlying structure, therefore, a negative existential (defined on an ablative node instead of a locative node governing Ne[xistential], symbolising *be absent from*) governs another negative existential, viz. the configuration N(abl(Ne(abl(Ne)))) is postulated. The same configuration in the environment of a modal governs *any*. *None* and *no one* derive from just one negative existential N(abl(Ne)) = *there is not some*. It is claimed that this formulation explains problems raised by Carden and Partee. [References.]

74-76   Halle, Morris. Prolegomena to a theory of word formation. *Linguistic Inquiry* (Cambridge, Mass), **4** (1973), 3-16.

A grammar claiming to model competence must include word formation (WF) rules which develop templates like $[\text{STEM} + a]_N$, $[\text{STEM} + b]_A$, $[\text{ADJ} + c]_V$ (where *a*, *b*, *c* are variables representing different sets of suffixes). The output of the WF component is the set of *potential* words in L. This set is filtered to exclude forms that do not actually occur and to specify the semantic and phonological idiosyncrasies of the new structures; hence, information may be required simultaneously from syntactic, semantic and phonological components of the grammar. The output of the filter is the set of dictionary entries for L: these are represented in paradigms, and it is suggested that lexical rules should insert whole or partial paradigms into base P-markers, one number of the paradigm being selected as appropriate to surface syntax at a later stage (thus solving such problems as surface case assignment in standard theory grammars). WF rules differ from rules of syntax and phonology because normally their output exists in permanent memory store and they are not used creatively. [Examples. References.]

74–77   Hervey, S. G. J. Reflections on J. J. Katz, 'The Semantic Component of a Linguistic Description' (in Katz, 1970). *Lingua* (Amsterdam), **31**, 4 (1973), 297–329.

The assumptions underlying Katz' semantic theory and its place within a tripartite standard theory grammar are shown to be neither necessary nor sufficient to account for linguistic behaviour. For example: a truly independent syntax would generate strings of symbols without the form and meaning characteristic of linguistic objects. The notion of an 'interpretive' semantics is absurd because base strings have no meaning to be interpreted. An independent semantics could not specify the phonological form and syntactic class of lexical items (i.e. could not insert lexical items into the base, or match these to assign readings). The interrelations of a syntactic base preceding both semantic and phonological components is not verifiable (and so, trivial) except as an account of actual behaviour (performance), when it is apparently incorrect. Because Katz fails to explain the relationship between messages and semantic interpretations, he cannot account for the speaker's ability to understand sentences. Katz' description of semantic relations is severely inadequate because he has no hypothesis for defining the set of semantic markers and their interrelations. [References.]

74–78   Kastovsky Dieter. Causatives. *Foundations of Language* (Dordrecht), **10**, 2 (1973), 255–315.

A Fillmore-type case grammar is combined with McCawley-like generative trees in exemplifying word formation rules in English by analysis of causative verbs. There are three kinds of causatives, (i) auxiliary, e.g. *make, cause*; (ii) implicit, e.g. (to) *fell, button*; (iii) affixal, e.g. *legalise*. Causatives are two place predicates on Agents or Instrumentals and Goals. CAUSE commands state or change-of-state verbs. Active causatives imply DO (realised in emphatic mood). Using Predicate Raising, NP-Adjoining, Subject Raising, Equi-NP Deletion and other transformations, such analyses as the following are demonstrated: CAUSE NEG → *prevent*, CAUSE NEG SEE → *hide* (cf. 'prevent from

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seeing'), CAUSE DO BECOME NEG MILITARY → *demilitarise*, CAUSE DO BECOME NEG HAVE ON FROST → *defrost*. Word formation rules required for these last two justify their general use. [References.]

74–79 **Martinet, André.** Pour une linguistique des langues. [Towards a linguistics for languages.] *Foundations of Language* (Dordrecht), **10**, 3 (1973), 339–64.

Linguistics should study language as communication and explain differences between languages, varieties, and styles. Bloomfieldian and transformational linguistics has failed to do this. Functionalism is the only theory which concentrates on the communicative act, i.e. on *parole*. Fundamental to functionalism is the notion of language as a double articulation: the first articulation is the temporal sequence of monemes (minimal units of communication); the second articulation realises these significative units as phonemes. A language is analysed into distinctive units, their classes and structures being determined distributionally and not according to preconceived ideas. Analysis begins with the second articulation into segmental phonemes and prosodies (tone, pitch, etc.). Significative units are identified as monemes or synthemes (lexical items of more than one word); an inventory of lexical items and their classes is made. Syntax describes the relations between linguistic units as used by the receiver to reconstruct the message. Morphology describes lexemes and synthemes. Semantics is too difficult to formalise; the meaning of a term is its use in situations. Axiology is the study of universal sense relations (*valeurs*). Functionalism, by formalising observed reality, has a great contribution to make to stylistics, applied linguistics, and language teaching.

SEMANTICS

74–80 **Klinkenberg, J.-M.** Le concept d'isotopie en sémantique et en sémiotique littéraire. [The concept of isotopy in semantics and literary semiotics.] *Français Moderne* (Paris), **41**, 3 (1973), 285–90.

The concept of isotopy, denoting the totality of signification of a message, and hence of a literary text, is examined in relation to a series of problems in discourse analysis: (1) the difficulty of passing beyond phrase structure may be met by the use of a concept of semantic expansion, but practical procedures are wanting. (2) The recognition of isotopy starts from the identification of lexeme redundancy, but this leads to a subjective choice of the basic redundancies. Semantics does not as yet offer a means of measuring the relevant variables [proposed definition of minimal isotopic context]. (3) A uniform reading postulates not only the occurrence of a number of semes, but their non-occurrence in contradictory sememes. (4) A uniform (non-contradictory) reading presupposes a pre-existent individual or collective isotopy at the level of *langue* [example]. (5) The extension of the concept of isotopy to all linguistic manifestations, though enticing, risks over-generalisation. A new terminology is in the making [examples]. (6) In a text, isotopy has a syntactic element, and so demonstrates the relevance of rhetoric, which can lead to a rigorous methodology. (7) Information theory suggests that rhetorical unities may enable one isotopy within a text to be mapped metasememically on another. But at what point does this break down? (8) There is the possibility of a hierarchy of isotopes, but this awaits adequate demonstration. (9) To avoid regression into uncontrolled polysemy, it is essential to study the paradigmatic system as arising out of the linear reading. Only thus can the concept of isotopy produce a 'topological syntax'.

74-81   **Michéa, R.** Notes et réflexions sur les distributions de fréquences lexicales. [Notes and thoughts on the distributions of lexical frequencies.] *Cahiers de Lexicologie* (Paris), **22**, 1 (1973), 69–95.

[This study is part of a series, of which the last two articles appeared in *Cahiers de Lexicologie*, 1971 and 1972.]

Zipf's law, although attractive, is not supported by extensive investigation of texts and is mathematically impossible. The product of frequency times rank order for the lexical items of greatest frequency always increases before stability is reached, if it is reached at all. The law has not been verified satisfactorily for all kinds of words. The author proposes the establishment of a reference basis for studying experimental distributions [examples of frequency tables, and commentary]. He discusses the characterisation of the 'word' for statistical purposes.

The form taken by frequency distributions in general is discussed, and a method for setting up a measure of frequency distribution is proposed. In denying the status of 'law' to Zipf's assertion, the author argues for accepting it as the basis of a theoretical model. [An appendix contains a discussion based on considerations of arithmetic rather than on lexical statistics.]

LINGUISTIC DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS

74-82   **Barbaud, Philippe.** L'ambiguïté structurale du composé binominal. [Structural ambiguity of the binominal compound.] *Cahier de Linguistique* (Quebec), **1** (1971), 71–116.

The compound resulting from the concatenation of two nouns is syntactically ambiguous, and this ambiguity can be characterised by a transformational-generative analysis. The deep structures of superficially structurally identical compounds must be different [examples]. New compounds are frequently found in contemporary French, and they have been accounted for in various ways [examples and references]. The problem is formulated in terms of trans-

formational-generative grammar: as (*a*) a phenomenon of surface structure, (*b*) a reflection of deep structure differences, (*c*) related to the syntactic rather than the semantic component, (*d*) determined by the semantic-syntactic elements of deep structure in a non-arbitrary way. Four kinds of relations are proposed within the last category [examples and discussion], and the question of verification is considered.

Selectional constraints, internal and contextual, must form part of the characterisation of compounds [rules and examples]. While it is possible to account for the surface structure in terms of certain deep structure configurations, selectional constraints must be countered by grammatical devices to explain the presupposition of inherent properties, and metaphor [examples and discussion]. The formal relations of possible compound types are discussed in terms of both deep and surface structure [examples]. [Bibliography.]

74–83   **Harris, Roy.** Performative paradigms. *Transactions of the Philological Society* (Oxford), 1973, 44–58.

There are verbs whose paradigms encompass both performative and non-performative functions. When a speaker says *I declare Smith the winner* the declaration is thereby made, but this is not so in the case of other forms of declare, such as *Smith was declared the winner*. For such verbs the term 'occasional performative' is proposed, contrasting these with the majority of verbs in English, which are never performative. A consideration of a hypothetical language in which a verb could have a full performative paradigm, distinct from other tense paradigms, leads to the suggestion that the full paradigm is found in English, but contains forms morphologically and syntactically of other paradigms. Such a proposal runs counter to the lexicographer's assumption that modifications of accidence do not affect the root meaning of a word. [Consideration of the possibility of 'exclusive performatives' and discussion of such utterances as *I remain yours sincerely*.]

There is an examination of the speech act explanation of performatives and a discussion of proposals to regard the understanding

of the use of performative verbs as fundamental to knowing their meaning. Comparison with the characterisation of meanings for verbs which were non-performative or (hypothetically) exclusively performative suggests that there is no general rule for deriving non-performative meanings from performative. The precise nature of the connection between performative and non-performative meaning for any 'occasional performative' is thus a matter for empirical linguistic investigation.

74–84 **Palmer, F. R.** Noun-phrase and sentence: a problem in semantics/syntax. *Transactions of the Philological Society* (Oxford), 1973, 20–43.

It is entirely plausible to assume that the speaker must make a semantic distinction between 'talking about' a person, creature or object, and talking about an event, action or state in which a person, creature or object is involved, for example the distinction between the object NPs of sentences such as *I know the boys playing football* and *I like the boys playing football*. The syntactic analysis of these sentences is compared with distinctions for which a syntactic characterisation was proposed by Chomsky in *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*. The distinction between further sentences containing infinitive predicate constructions is considered [examples and discussion], and the proposals made by a number of linguists are reviewed [references].

The discussion focuses on ambiguity and the problems presented by the order of constituents. For two problems arising from the discussion (constraints on NPs that may or must occur as surface structure subjects, and the misleading role of deep structures in the case of ambiguity) solutions are proposed. A more precise feature assignment must acknowledge the difference in topic which was indicated at the beginning of the paper. The solution is only a partial one [examples and discussion of exceptions]. In an appendix the author considers the problem of pairs such as *I don't like his coming* and *I don't like him coming* as another aspect of the topic distinction. [References.]

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PSYCHOLINGUISTICS

74–85 **Shafto, Michael.** The space for case. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior* (New York), **12**, 5 (1973), 551–62.

The two experiments reported were concerned with case grammar as discussed by Fillmore ('Some problems for case grammar', *Working Papers in Linguistics* No. 10, Ohio State University, 1971). The first experiment set out to investigate the psychological validity of some of the cases proposed in the Fillmore model. [Discussion of related work.] Subjects were tested to ascertain how long it took them to learn to discriminate between *agent*, *experiencer*, *instrument*, *object* through practice with sentences. While *agent* was quickly learned, *experiencer* only slightly less accurately learned, and there was evidence of the learning of *instrumental*, there was little evidence for learning *object*. The second experiment was aimed at determining the role of predicate-argument relations posited for the underlying structure in case grammar (but not precisely relations as proposed by Fillmore) in the long-term memory of sentences. The confusion of sentences in memory was studied on the basis of predication about the relations in underlying structure. There was support for the Fillmore proposal that the verb is central to the relations. The author considers three possible models of the recognition of sentence relatedness, and argues for the 'case model' as the most convincing in the light of the detailed results of the experiment. [References.]

74–86 **Slama-Cazacu, Tatiana.** Is a 'socio-psycholinguistics' necessary? *Linguistics* (The Hague), **12** (1973), 93–104.

The first definition of psycholinguistics (PL) in the United States indicated the study of the relationship between the message and the peculiarities of the subjects as being the object of this field. A psycho-social study or, at least, a psycho-social orientation were implied in this point of view, although the theoretical (behaviourist) basis of this PL did not serve as a support of such an orientation. The majority of subsequent definitions and researches did not even

take into account the relationship emitter–receiver, the relation included in communication, and the integration in the social context.

The object of PL includes the message, but studying the message implies taking the real situation of communication as a starting point in the relational and dynamic context of the exchanges between the emitter and the receiver, who in their turn are determined by a situational ensemble, a context either *stricto sensu* or in its broadest acceptance. A PL study is implicitly psycho-social: an altogether exiguous place would be left for a 'pure PL', because language very seldom happens to be a monologue without any social purpose, and the value of an analysis *in vacuo* has been questioned by linguistics itself. What would be called a 'socio-psycholinguistics' is actually PL proper, which takes into consideration the real situation of communication, the real facts to be found in it, the determinants in action. Several examples of analysis and of research support these conclusions. [References.]

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT OF CHILDREN

74–87   Crystal, David. Non-segmental phonology in language acquisition: a review of the issues. *Lingua* (Amsterdam), **32**, 1/2 (1973), 1–45.

Research into children's language has generally ignored the nature and development of non-segmental phenomena in children's phonology, or has treated the question haphazardly. The components of this category are described [references], and the reasons for the scant attention to this aspect of language acquisition are discussed. Alongside the difficulty of obtaining natural and reliable samples of speech for analysis, and the disproportionate amount of time taken to check transcriptions and undertake acoustic analyses, there has long been no generally agreed system of classification and transcription. Various terminological discrepancies have resulted from the recent growing interest on the part of many disciplines [examples and discussion]. Weaknesses of theory and inattention to an explicit methodology have allowed this confusion to arise.

The field is considered in three main (but inevitably arbitrary) groupings: (1) early, 'pre-scientific' investigations, largely on the first year of life; (2) recent parametric analysis of vocalisations in young infants; (3) studies of non-segmental patterning in older children, especially in relation to syntax and social role [discussions and references]. The two main tasks in this area are methodological and descriptive – normative descriptive data is needed on many aspects, particularly for the second six months of life and for the comparative study of the progressive differentiation of vocalisation in different languages. [References.]

INTERPRETING

74-88   Barik, Henri C. Simultaneous interpretation: temporal and quantative data. *Language and Speech* (Hampton Hill, Mddx) **16**, 3 (1973), 237-70.

Very little experimental data is available about the complex activity of simultaneous interpretation. [Previous experimental work is described.] In this study, six French–English bilingual subjects with different levels of training (professional, student and amateur) interpreted four different types of material pre-recorded on tape: spontaneous speech; semi-prepared material, e.g. a lecture; prepared oral material; prepared written material. The temporal characteristics of the delivery patterns of the speaker (S) and interpreter or translator (T), and their interrelationships, were analysed by computer [detailed discussion]. In general, it was found that translated speech follows the same patterns as natural speech, but is less rhythmical; T tends to speak for a relatively longer time than S, and mainly when S is pausing; T's delivery is also a few seconds slower. Less qualified Ts tend to give more fragmented versions but no striking differences were revealed between different categories of T, different types of material, or the direction of translation. Quantative findings are noted. [References.]

REGISTER

74-89   **DeStefano, Johanna.** Some parameters of register in adult and child speech. *ITL* (Leuven), **18** (1972), 31–45.

Register is conceived as a situationally conditioned use of language. Registers may cut across social dialect and boundaries and also across languages. Features of lexis, syntax, phonology and para-linguistics frequently overlap in registers, but a small part of each set of features is not shared. Registers are governed by the inter-section of field, mode and style of discourse. The field of discourse refers to the area of operation, e.g. scientific or domestic; the mode refers to the medium of the language activity, whether written or spoken (distinctions also being made between various types of speech); style refers to the role relationships between speaker and listener or writer and reader. Registers seem to cluster within domains, the most common being family, playground and street, education, religion and employment. An adult will probably control a limited range of registers within the community's total range.

The developmental aspect of register is examined by comparing a six-year-old's repertoire with an adult's. A special study was made of the acquisition of the English language-learning register by vernacular-speaking black American children (the Language Instruction Register): it was found that the older the child, the more LIR features he produced. [Bibliography.]