

**LINGUISTIC DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS**

**69–88** Uhlenbeck, E. M. Some further remarks on transformational grammar. *Lingua* (Amsterdam), **17**, 3 (1967), 263–317.

[The author considers four issues: the reliance of transformational theory on traditional grammar, the concept of the native speaker's competence and its relation to performance, the position of transformational theory with respect to the linguistic sign, and the relationship and boundary between the syntactic and the semantic aspects of language.]

Chomsky was insufficiently aware that traditional terminology reflects failure to distinguish between grammatical, semantic, and cognitive considerations. By suggesting that traditional labels refer to known linguistic facts, transformational theory by-passes important issues.

Transformational theory takes the view that the linguist should appeal to the native speaker's judgement of whether a sentence is grammatical or not. But whether an utterance can occur or not cannot be judged without taking context into account. Attention is focused on what lies outside language, and the native speaker's judgements cannot, without research, be taken to reflect features of the linguistic structure. A distinction must be made between language and the use of language. Only instances of the use of language are directly accessible; but observation is not enough.

It is hard to conduct interviews with linguistic informants so as to elicit what one needs to know. The distinction between a language-user's skills and various types of knowledge he has about the language is not made in transformational theory. Chomsky exaggerates a young child's mastery of its native language.

Transformation theory remains close to Harrisian structural lin-

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guistics in its attitude to the semantic aspect of language and in its neglect of the word as a basic unit. The relation between syntax and semantics is a central problem to be solved only if the unique position of the word is understood. The syntactic and semantic aspects presuppose each other. If there is not a context or situation into which a sentence will fit, this indicates that the sentence violates some syntactic rule. Some of Chomsky's sentences are deviant only for non-syntactic reasons, others are sequences of syntactically unrelated words. The speaker's and hearer's frames of reference and the situation have to be taken into account.

A method of syntactic analysis starting from principles based on study of speech and language should be developed. In the field of syntax, traditional grammar has little to offer. In morphology and phonology some kinds of structural linguistics have surpassed parts-of-speech morphology. Reichling's theory of word meaning is a good starting-point for development of semantic theory. What Chomsky calls deep structure refers to the cognitive aspect of the sentence. The assumption that a native speaker intuitively knows the syntactic structure is unjustified. A language cannot be described as a self-contained system. Language is structured in such a way that it can adapt itself to many functions.

## BILINGUALISM

**69–89** Fishman, Joshua A. Sociolinguistic perspective on the study of bilingualism. *Linguistics* (The Hague), 39 (1968), 21–49.

Psychologists, linguists and sociologists have all examined bilingualism from their own points of view. The article provides brief reviews and critiques of traditional approaches to the study of bilingualism in each of the three separate disciplines, and then suggests an interdisciplinary theory for the study of bilingualism.

Psychologists have concerned themselves chiefly with the relationship of bilingualism to intelligence and school learning. Linguists have pursued the question of 'interference' between two 'pure'

languages and sociologists have dealt with countries, census tracts, school systems, etc. The sociolinguistic model propounded by the author for the study of bilingualism focuses upon the functionally different contexts of verbal interaction in diglossic speech communities. Not every facet of behaviour or attitude is reflected in a different variety of speech and a change in situation does not necessarily lead to a change in speech. The *functional* distinctions at each level of analysis must be empirically discovered in each bilingual setting.

## PSYCHOLINGUISTICS

**69-90** Bresson, F. Les développements récents de la psycholinguistique. [Recent developments in psycholinguistics.] *Langues Modernes* (Paris), 62, 3 (1968), 294-6.

For fifty years experimental psychology has grown from the theory of conditioning developed by Pavlov. Difficulties arose with this 'stimulus-response' theory in passing from relatively simple behaviour to complex activity such as thought and language. Piaget has shown that the acquisition of logical thought cannot be reduced to a learning process of the stimulus-response type however complex it may be. This does not invalidate Pavlov's theory, but shows its limitations. Only models of the generative type can produce infinite reasoning as mathematical theory produces an infinity of theorems. A similar development occurred in linguistics when Chomsky introduced his notion of generative grammar, and the convergence of these evolutions is interesting. Linguistic theory can be conceived in two ways: as an abstract purely algebraic model, generating the expressions of a language, or else as a theory of competence, no longer a model of the language but of the speaker. In the latter the link between psychology and linguistics becomes evident, with the same problematic sphere.

Following Chomsky's work, psycholinguistics has developed in two directions: establishing the psychological reality of the generative and transformational model, and studying the child's acquisition of his mother tongue. Much remains to be discovered. What is estab-

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lished is that the child does not acquire syntax simply by imitation, but by exercising his creative faculty for producing language.

The application of such study to the acquisition of a second language is of great importance as is also its application to semantics, and to finding the specific properties which distinguish one language from another or the child's language from the adult's.

## AUDITORY PHONETICS

**69-91** **Schneider, Alfred.** Einige Bemerkungen zur phonetischen Korrektur. [Some observations on phonetic correction.] *Revue de phonétique appliquée* (Mons), 7 (1968), 79-83.

The writer notes the importance of the relationship between human perception and hearing on the one hand, and human speech on the other. The physical analysis of speech, a breakdown of the distribution of sound frequencies with their intensity in relation to time, tells us only very little about the perception of sounds. One may, for example, produce the spectrogram of a German word, showing in every detail its frequencies and formants, but even under perfect conditions of transmission and reception, that word cannot be heard and reproduced without error by someone who does not speak the language. The reason is that the speaker not only fails to hear certain sounds, and hence omits them, but also, in the case of some sounds, adds or substitutes many which had not occurred in the model. The writer found that instruction and guidance in the production of a new sound system and in a new means of intonation in a foreign language (German) helped a thirteen-year-old girl who was hard of hearing to improve production of the sounds of her French mother tongue. With the help of SUVAG-Lingua and techniques of verbotonal correction, originally developed by Guberina and his colleagues, she became aware of wider and richer choices of frequency and intensity. From this and other experiments the writer has concluded that speech is heard within a limited range of frequencies. The sounds of the foreign language are perceived correctly only within relatively narrow but optimal frequency bands. Over the whole frequency range there tends

to be substitution of the nearest sound in the mother tongue. Good hearing is, in itself, insufficient. In order to hear a sound correctly one must also be capable of correct articulation. This goal could be achieved more easily by examining the sounds of a language from a structural point of view.

## GRAMMAR

**69–92** **Gross, M.** *Les modèles en linguistique.* [Models in linguistics.] *Langages* (Paris), 9 (1968), 3–8.

The idea of model (that is of theory) holds an important position in modern American and Soviet linguistics but is relatively unknown in western Europe. By a brief examination of the thinking on this subject of Bar-Hillel, Harris, Chomsky, Kleene and Schützenberger, various conceptions of ‘model’ are illustrated. These models will have a logico-mathematical definition and will be context-free.

The idea of grammatical model has been closely associated with generative grammar and has contributed to the spectacular development of linguistics in the last decade by forcing the linguist to define his model very exactly. This can only be done in logico-mathematical terms. An important property of the ‘model’ conception is that of universality, which at present is very abstract, though the construction of sequences by ‘nesting’ or ‘embedding’ seems to be a universal property of natural language. Ambiguity also seems to be very general. Recent linguistic studies are all converging on the same point—the great complexity of phonological, syntactic and semantic phenomena in even a simple sentence—and future studies, with mathematical assistance, should provide valuable information on the internal constitution of human language and doubtless also on other psychological processes. [Bibliography.]

- 69-93 Harsh, Wayne.** Three approaches: traditional grammar, descriptive linguistics, generative grammar. *English Teaching Forum* (Washington, DC), 6, 4 (1968), 2-9.

The present-day teacher of grammar needs to be aware of the three approaches: traditional grammar, descriptive linguistics and generative grammar, which may be seen as complementary rather than mutually exclusive. The article provides a succinct description of the three. [Bibliography.]

- 69-94 Wardhaugh, Ronald.** If grammar, which grammar, and how? *College English* (Champaign, Illinois), 29, 4 (1968), 303-9.

Because of the shortage of trained linguists in the universities and the pressure of work caused by mounting numbers of students there is little rethinking being done on English grammar in American universities. Such applied linguistics as is being taught is generally addressed to education students who may have no opportunity of exercising their knowledge later in the classroom. If the place of grammar is uncertain at present, the problem of what grammar to teach and how is no less difficult of solution. Multiple grammatical theories lead to multiple English grammars. All will have some value but none the monopoly of truth, and a dogmatic approach has to be avoided. An introductory course in linguistics will be a prerequisite to a comparative course on English grammar. A subjective approach by the lecturer will be almost inevitable in selecting material for a very limited time-schedule, but he will have to guard against propaganda for a narrow point of view. Students may apply pressure to know what immediate application they can make of grammatical theory and description, particularly if they are education students. Answering questions of practical application too soon can only lead to gimmickry. A good training in theoretical issues is likely to prove far better for classroom teachers than indoctrination into one grammar. Linguistics is changing and teachers need to be able to work out for themselves the practical consequences of change. The study of grammar is a

humane study and particular grammars need to be studied in a humane spirit of inquiry and openness.

## LEXICAL STUDIES

**69-95** **Arcaïni, Enrico.** L'interférence au niveau du lexique. [Interference at the lexical level.] *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), 5, 3 (1968), 109-23.

The problem of interference arises at all levels of language but is examined here with regard to lexis. Semantic structure is based on morphological elements which do not always sufficiently indicate differences in meaning. It is also based on syntagmatic combination. Now that the traditional autonomy of the 'word' has been broken, lexicologists and semanticists can study it within a structure of forms and uses arising out of the interaction between socio-economic and linguistic factors. The idea of 'semantic field' has become undeniable fact and lexis can characterize language as clearly as morphology and syntax.

The possible interference of apparently 'equivalent' words which cover different semantic fields is illustrated by comparative examples from French, Danish and Swedish, and English, German, Italian and French.

The questions of linguistic context, problems of first and second language and 'semantic field' are considered and illustrated in diagrammatic form through the uses of the Italian word *campo*. The mechanism of interference is studied in the different uses of *porter* in French and *portare* in Italian. Emphasis is laid on the fact that when translating one must paraphrase first in the base language in order to arrive with greater certainty at the correct solution in the target language.

- 69-96 **Engels, L. K.** The fallacy of word-counts. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), 6, 3 (1968), 214-31.

Since Kaeding's word-count for the benefit of shorthand writing in 1889, lexicometrical research has been one of the main fields of applied linguistics. Frequency lists are consulted whenever foreign-language textbooks are drawn up, and in recent years word-counts have been in use in automatic translation and automatic information retrieval, but the divergent methods used in this kind of lexicometry have been criticized. The present investigation considers not only the frequent words but also the outsiders. Michael West's *General Service List* was compared with ten random passages of English and it was found that the first 1,000 words of the list covered only 75 per cent of any texts. The author doubts the value of the remaining 25 per cent as 'general service' words and proposes that in future counters should look for frequency and range *within* a topic and literary genre.

## IDIOM AND USAGE

- 69-97 **Chafe, Wallace L.** Idiomaticity as an anomaly in the Chomskyan paradigm. *Foundations of Language* (Dordrecht), 4, 2 (1968), 109-27.

The history of linguistics in the United States since 1925 provides support for Kuhn's view that the history of a science consists in a series of 'paradigms', or 'models from which spring particular coherent traditions of scientific research'. Anomalies within the Bloomfieldian paradigm made way for the Chomskyan paradigm, and within this idiomaticity is an anomaly.

An idiom has the same characteristics as any deep structure, except that its meaning is not an amalgamation of the meanings of its parts. It will not undergo the usual nominalization transformation. There are some idioms which are not syntactically well formed; the frequency of their literal counterpart is generally low.

[The author discusses Katz, Postal and Weinreich's attempts to

account for idioms within the Chomskyan paradigm and finds them inadequate in several ways.]

An alternative to the Chomskyan paradigm is one in which semantics and not syntax is the initiator. Outside the Bloomfield–Chomskyan line of development linguists have emphasized the role of language as mediating between meaning and sound. The generative process begins in the semantic area and the speaker's 'encoding' takes primacy over the hearer's 'decoding'.

Semantic units are converted into phonetic units by 'symbolization'. Idioms are formed by semantic change which produces a discrepancy between semantic and post-semantic arrangements which enter directly into symbolization. Idioms are a subset of semantic units subject to 'literalization' rules.

[The author discusses how generative semantics can explain various peculiarities of idioms.] The relation between idioms and semantic emphasis should be investigated. As well as lexical there are non-lexical idioms which Chomskyan linguists have dealt with.

The inadequacies of generative syntax call for its abandonment in favour of generative semantics.

## TRANSLATION

**69–98 Mounin, Georges.** Introduction linguistique aux problèmes de la traduction. [Linguistic introduction to translation problems.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), 54 (1968), 12–16.

Although much work has been done on translation questions in the last twenty years, it has been directed towards theory rather than pedagogical application. Schools for interpreters and reviews dealing with translation problems from the craftsman's angle have multiplied. Linguists have become interested, and some more consolidated and scientific work has resulted. The myth of the peculiar genius of languages has been to some extent dispelled and the difficulties have been described and delimited.

One of the major difficulties is transference from one culture to another. Where the features of one culture do not exist in another,

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descriptive terminology is also lacking. A term is then 'borrowed' and explanatory footnotes have to be added until the object in question is well known. Different generations will also understand different terminology.

Linguistics can enable the translator to recognize and demythologize syntactic problems, by showing him the use of transposition, modulation, equivalence and adaptation as legitimate solutions to syntactic difficulties.

The terrors of stylistics can also be mitigated by a linguistic approach. If one sets out to analyse how the particular effects of, for example, Homer's poetry are achieved, one can then decide how best these can be conveyed in another language, while recognizing that exact transposition of versification and stylistic effect is not possible.

Linguistics can help the translator to reflect language less empirically and subjectively, and offers finer instruments to analyse the difficulties encountered. It cannot make a translator but it can inform him and offer scientific assistance without dispensing with the *art* of manipulating the language. [Bibliography.]

## REGISTER

**69-99** **Pytelka, Josef.** Jazyk reklamy jako ukázka studia jazykových 'rejstříků'. [The language of advertisement as a sample of the study of language registers.] *Cizí jazyky ve škole* (Prague), **11**, 3 (1967/8), 108-12.

The main linguistic characteristics of this register, based on the information found in G. N. Leech's book *English in Advertising* (1965), are discussed, including, for example, an extensive use of compound attributive noun-qualifiers, adjectives beginning in *super-* and ending in *-y*, imperative, non-finite clauses, and clauses without predication; a predilection for positive statements and syntactic coordination; and a scant use of the passive voice and tenses other than the present. The authors finds this study stimulating and commendable to teachers, who have so far paid little attention to stylistic differentiation within the language.

CONTRASTIVE LINGUISTICS

**69–100** Nickel, Gerhard and K. Heinz Wagner. Contrastive linguistics and language teaching. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), 6, 3 (1968), 233–55.

Contrastive linguistics has become an important part of applied linguistics, and the article attempts to show what results can be expected from it, and what can be applied to teaching. Contrastive analysis is nevertheless still in its infancy and does not yet have a solid theoretical basis. Its contribution in the immediate future should not therefore be overestimated. It will take years of hard work before the contrastive analysis of any two languages can yield results which can be used with profit in the preparation of adequate teaching material.