REVIEWS

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Old English syntax. A handbook — a very promising title indeed for all those who have been awaiting the appearance of "a reasonably full and at the same time compact presentation of the most crucial facts of Old English syntax." (p. 79). Since many of the more recent publications on OE syntax, most of them concerned with specific texts or particular aspects only, require that the reader be familiar with an intricate and highly formalized linguistic model, one is relieved to learn that a "fairly simple predicate-argument model" is used and that "[t] here is little need for the reader to bring to this study a sophisticated knowledge of linguistics — of whatever theoretical persuasion". (p. X). The author intends this handbook "to be a useful guide to Old English syntax for students and scholars alike", with an "emphasis on many examples of syntactic structures", including "some comparison with Modern English" (p. X). Considering the well-known problem that the interests of students and scholars are not necessarily the same and that the OE language is by no means diatopically, diaphasically and diachronically homogeneous — a fact not mentioned by the author except for a few passing remarks on poetry and prose in the chapter on word order — one begins to have doubts, however, as to the possibility of achieving the proposed goals in only 105 pages.

A closer inspection of the book confirms these doubts. It is inconsistent not only with respect to an underlying grammatical theory — individual chapters are based on different grammatical models — but also regarding its formal aspects. Some passages are of a very basic introductory character; others deal with highly specific issues. Theoretical concepts are hardly ever made explicit, and many of the numerous technical terms lack precise definitions. A reader not familiar with the different grammatical models will therefore at times face considerable problems in following the argumentation; one familiar with them will often be amazed by the nonchalance with which still unresolved problems within these theories are ignored. Many chapters contain lengthy discussions of ModE syntactical problems with little relevance to the OE situation, followed by never-ending lists of OE examples, and their ModE translations, very often without any comment. This leads to completely disproportioned chapters, e.g. 'Conjoined propositions', with 34 lines (incl. 5 chapter headings) of commentary and 197 lines of examples, or 'Additional role structure with verbs', with 57 lines (incl. 20 [!] chapter headings) of commentary and 206 lines of OE examples.

After this treatment of the "most prominent features of Old English syntax" (p. X), where such important categories as tense, mood or aspect are not even mentioned, the reader is bewildered to find that the author still finds room enough for an 'Appendix' of 23 [!] pages on 'Some developments in Middle English syntax'.

The book contains a 'Preface', an 'Introduction' and the following nine chapters (number of pages in brackets): '1. Old English case structure' (28), '2. Old English Complementation' (6 1/2), '3. Relative clauses' (7), '4. Conjoined propositions' (7), '5. Interro-

gative propositions' (3), '6. Imperative propositions' (1 1/2), '7. Negative propositions' (2), '8. Passive propositions' (8) and '9. Word order' (13). These are followed by a 'Subject Index' and the above mentioned 'Appendix'.

The 'Introduction' is typical of the whole book. The brief outline of a case grammar predicate-argument model is almost exclusively based on ModE examples and is too sketchy to be really helpful. E.g., a modality constituent does not exist and only three of the more than 30 semantic roles occurring in this handbook are defined in some detail. The discussion of the syntactic functions of nouns is a curious mixture of a traditional and a generative transformational approach. Why, however, the author replaces the term "Indirect Object" by "Oblique Object" never really becomes clear, despite the remarks on this problem on p. 3. And what is one to make of the following remarks on p. 3: "[OE] sentence word order tends to be somewhat more flexible than that of Modern English", .." [a]lthough Old English word order permits of somewhat greater variation than does that of Modern English, it is by no means haphazard", ..." [t]he following sentence is standard Old English although it appears somewhat strange to modern ears",... that OE word order may be "much like that of Modern English", apart from what MacLaughlin (henceforth McL) chooses to call "some minor adjustments". But is the insertion of a personal pronoun to fill the subject position or the reversal of the original OE word order from OV to VO (p. 3, sentence 14) really only a "minor" adjustment?

Later in the book it is claimed that "[t]he Old English case system [...] had [...] deteriorated [!] to the point that numerous case markings had lost their distinctiveness and were thus unable to differentiate semantic and syntactic function". (p. 76). In the light of this the following analysis of sentence 12, p. 3, *Her nam Beorthric cyning Offan dohtor Eadburge* is misleading, to say the least: "*Beorthric* and *cyning* are marked as Subject /agent by the nominative case, *Offan* as an Oblique Object/possessor by the Genitive case, *dohtor* and *Eadburge* as Direct Object/patient by the Accusative case". None of the nouns in this sentence is inflectionally unambiguous and it is only from the fact that *Eadburge* is non-nominative, and the tendency to specify the bridegroom before the bride that one can deduce the correct meaning of the sentence. (The length-marking in the McL text will be excluded in this review for reasons given below. Regardless of the confusing inconsistency in the use of italics by McL OE examples will here be italicized).

The discussion of another example, in fact, raises doubts as to the author's knowledge of OE morphology. Thus the sentence *Her bæd Burgred Miercna cyning and his witan Æþelwulf cyning þæt he him gefultumode þæt [he] him Norþ-Wealas gehiersumode* (*Chronicle* [sic], Anno 854) is glossed as follows: "At this time-asked-Burgrd-the Mercian King-and-his counsellors-Aethelwolf King-that-he-him-would help-so that-him-the North Welch-would obey". (p. 3, sent. 13). The pronoun *he* is erroneously omitted by McL, which accounts for the wrong translation, but even so the author should have noticed that the verb form *gehiersumode* could never be the predicate going with a subject *Norþ-Wealas*. (Cp. the parallel entry in the original of the year 869). That *gehiersumode* clearly has a causative meaning here, is incidentally corroborated by the next sentence in the original text not quoted by McL; *He þa swa dide* [...], *and he him ealle gehyrsume gedyde*. (*Chronicles*, Anno 854).

The 'Introduction' ends rather abruptly with a few passing remarks on the correlation between prepositions and roles in ModE, and on what one must know in "learning a language" (p. 4) — a problem that is certainly not at issue in a handbook on OE syntax.

The idea of using a case grammar model for chapter 1, 'Old English case structures', is very appealing, because, among the more recent grammatical theories, this model appears to be most suitable for the problems involved. The way it is handled in this book, though, does more damage to the theory than it does to help further its cause.

The brief paragraph on 'The Nominative' mentions the various semantic roles which the nominative case may mark, but for agent and object there are no examples and the role-assignment in some instances would merit further explanation: Are patient and experiencer identical, as suggested on p. 5, sent. 23, or what is the difference if there is any? The syntactical subject of the predicate *comon* (p. 5, sent. 24) is Nom./Pat. for McL, but to us an analysis as Nom./agent or even Nom./agent=patient would seem more plausible. In sent. 26, *ecg* is analyzed as Nom./Cause, Inst.; are cause and instrument two different roles, are they the same? Since there is no definition or explanation, the reader is left to his own resources. Problematic analyses like these can be found on practically every page.

In the commentary on two-place predicates the notions of Direct and Oblique Object are central to the discussion, but the theoretical status of the latter is not made sufficiently clear. The most serious problem, however, is the assumption that ModE paraphrases of OE sentences can be regarded as "translations of underlying Old English constructions" (p. 8). On the basis of ModE paraphrases, like "'that he might have *joy of* the ring-hoard' [or]'... the wooden shield would not provide *help for* him'" (p. 8), McL assumes that verbs like *brucan* or *helpan* "taking Genitive or Dative [Direct] Objects are derived from underlying nominal constructions taking Oblique Objects." (p. 9). He also suggests that "it is possible to argue [in this vein also] on synchronic grounds" (p. 8), but never shows how. Instead, he offers as corroboration for his analysis the observation that the majority of such verbs belong to the 1st or 2nd weak class, i.e. they are deverbal or denominal derivatives. But he is at a loss to explain that about 40% of the verbs in his list are strong verbs, which are normally considered as primary both synchronically and diachronically, and simply assumes that "certain features of these verbs which we cannot now recapture [...] influenced the selection of cases." (p. 11). Incidentally, *neosian* is not a class 1 weak verb and *ætwindan* not a class 7 strong verb (cp. p. 10).

The sub-chapter on three-place predicates is hardly more convincing. Parallel to his findings in the previous chapter McL postulates that in its role as object, the Genitive as surface Direct Object arises from an underlying Oblique Object construction, whereas the Accusative Direct Object has an underlying Direct Object construction. Once again, these claims are "substantiated" by ModE paraphrases so that their value is highly questionable all the more so since McL himself admits that there is little chance of finding "sufficient evidence to prove or disprove them" (p. 15).

The sub-chapter on 'Additional role structure with verbs' lacks a theoretical basis and is little more than a collection of OE examples. The reader ends up with more than 30 different roles, the larger part of which are introduced without comment or definition, many of them apparently ad-hoc solutions, e.g. inherent possession and intensive (p. 19), absolute expressions (p. 20), partitive (p. 21, sent. 137), reflexive (p. 23), motive (p. 29, sent. 194), etc. It is rather annoying to be left to one's own devices in trying to establish the difference between intensive and reflexive or to be expected to supply the roles that have been omitted. (E. g. p. 20, sent. 132). The division into two- and three-place predicates introduced previously, seems to have been given up altogether.

Much the same holds true for the sub-chapter on 'Non-verbal predicates', where even more new roles crop up and others are lumped together. To give just one example: what exactly distinguishes point of departure from source? (p. 30f., sent. 202 and 210).

The lengthy introduction to chapter 2, 'Old English Complementation', seems to have been taken out of a paper on ModE complementation; the same is true of the introductions to chapters 3 - 8. Thus, the connection with OE is sometimes rather tenuous, and even the observations on ModE are sometimes incorrect. Just a few examples in order to illustrate this:

Many of the verbs said to *require* sentential subjects or objects only take them optionally (p. 32).

Verbs of perception do not *require* a participial complement in ModE, but take either a bare infinitive *or* a participle (p. 37).

The only example for both "*þæt*- and Infinitive-complementation in the same clause (p. 39) reveals once more the author's inadequate knowledge of OE: *þæt*, in the sentence *And hie hine heton þæt attor etan,* is clearly a demonstrative pronoun and not a complementizer as assumed by McL.

Chapter 3, 'Relative clauses', shows a mixture of traditional descriptions (p. 39) and generative transformational assumptions such as underlying abstract heads (p. 43f.), a cause of considerable confusion for the non-initiated reader.

Role structures do not figure anywhere in chapter 8, 'Passive propositions', which uses the standard theory (1965) model and which does not mention that passivization is treated as a topicalization process in case grammar. Moreover, much of this chapter is taken from Visser (1963 - 73: cp. §§ 1908 - 09, 1916 - 17, 1923) without mentioning the source. The Modern German example plus comment (p. 59) is from Curme (1913: cp. p. 186), also quoted in Visser (1963 - 73: § 1908), again without giving the source.

Chapter 9, 'Word order', based on Greenberg (1963) and restricted to prose texts, is, though not without flaws, a useful, student-orientated discussion of OE word order with the result that "Old English marks a transitional stage between a fully SOV language and a fully SVO language." (p.78). One misses, however, references to well-known works like Reszkiewicz (1966) and Bacquent (1962) or the more recent dissertation by Bean (1976).

Only little need be said about the 'Appendix'. One wonders what may have led to its addition. The chapter headings, not listed in the "Inhaltsverzeichnis" (p. Vf.), mainly correspond to those in the OE part, but the emphasis is often shifted to different aspects of the same topics, so that there is no real continuity of description. The points of criticism raised so far also apply to this part of the book:

Three pages of examples illustrating the spread of prepositions are followed by diligent compilations of ME and EModE examples. The chapters otherwise resemble abstracts of average students' seminar papers. For example, it is not in accordance with any of the standard opinions that the OE relative marker "*þe* loses its relative function and comes to be used solely as the pre-nominal marker *the*." (p. 90). Even within a transformational model it is to be doubted that "the syntax of Modern English questions had been basically established in Old English". (p. 99). The 10 examples for infinitive complementation are also to be found in Visser (1963 - 73: §§ 1202, 1207, 1212, 1217, 1220, 1227, 1232, 2068).

In the chapter on word order the reader is confronted with a whole page of ME text and is asked to "judge for himself the extent to which the word order [...] conforms to that of Modern English" (p. 102). This is not exactly what one would expect from a handbook.

As in the OE part one sometimes doubts the author's knowledge of OE and ME. Thus, in the sentence *ealle þa minstre þa haedenee* [sic] *men hæfden aer* [sic] *tobrocon* (p. 90, sent. 2), an alleged example of an unmarked relative clause, McL interprets the second *þa* as a demonstrative referring to *haedene men,* without considering the fact that the adjective would have to show weak inflection in this case. Clearly, this *þa* is an inflected form of the pronoun *se* introducing an overt relative.

A second example is the sentence *þo he þat writ dude rede* (p. 99), which is interpreted as "meaning either, 'then he who wrote, read', or 'then he who wrote *caused* to read';", an interpretation that is impossible because of the form *writ,* which is certainly not a preterite here. Moreover, *o writt* on p. 88, sent. 1, is correctly identified as article plus noun.

Is it possible that more than one author was involved here? It should be added, furthermore, that the two quotations must have been taken from Visser (1963 - 73: §§ 1202 and 1219), but no source is given.

Listing all the formal shortcomings of this book is impossible. A few more serious examples will have to suffice: There is no bibliography, bibliographical references are restricted to four footnotes to the 'Preface'. The most recent bibliographical item is from 1972. The author obviously has not noticed that Visser's vol. III/2nd half appeared in 1973. The long-standing tradition of German studies in OE is completely ignored and McL does not seem to be concerned too much with bibliographical detail. Many of the bibliographical references are far from correct: Bloomfield and Newmark (1963) was reprinted with corrections in 1979; Pyles (1964) saw a second edition in 1971 and a third one in 1982, co-authored and considerably amended by J. Algeo; Quirk and Wrenn (1957) is the second edition, the first dating from 1955; J. and M. Wright (1925) is the third edition of a first one in 1908. The last title is to prove that the older handbooks provided "little more than a passing reference to syntax". (p. IX). This may be true of many, though certainly not of all. A valuable source of information in this respect, but not mentioned by the author, however, is Ryden (1979). A few more recent studies will also be mentioned under 'References" below. What led to the statement that Campbell's *Old English Grammar* (exclusively treating phonology and morphology) deals "most effectively with Old English syntax" (p. IX) must remain a mystery, except for the fact, maybe, that the same claim appears in Mitchell (1968²:p.144).

Quotations are inconsistent and alphabetical ordering seems to have been a problem not only here but throughout the book. The list of 'Citations', containing numerous errors (e.g., p. XI, line 24, read Holthausen for Holthauser), does not mention any of the more than 50 different primary texts of the 'Appendix', although they are quoted there in abbreviated form, nor does the 'Subject Index' cover the 'Appendix'. It might have been helpful, if prose and metrical texts had been separated in the list of citations.

The first few pages of the book already exhibit an inconsistent and often incorrect marking of vowel-length in the OE quotations, which, quite generally, have little in common with their counterparts in the original editions cited by McL. Thus, of the first 30 quotations from *Beowulf*, 24 deviate from the original, containing between one and eight mistakes, involving length-marking, spelling, and even word order. The same holds for all the other quotations throughout the book. Title abbreviations are also unsystematic. The rationale underlying the author's translations of OE texts — they range from word-for-word renderings to rather free paraphrases — is also most obscure. In view of all this, the more than 30 misprints are almost negligible.

The general impression is that the most consistent feature of this handbook is its inconsistency. The book rather looks like a compilation of various independent studies (maybe even by different people), some of which contain quite interesting ideas. These are, however, not developed to the point where they might figure in a handbook on OE syntax. They would definitely require much more research and a more consistent theoretical foundation. In its present form the handbook will be a disappointment to the student and a constant cause of irritation to the specialist.

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Fundamental concepts of language teaching. By H. H. Stern. Pp. 582. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 1983.

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Stern's book is very likely to appear disappointing to some readers and stimulating to others. Who will react how will, in my opinion, depend largely on the reader's expectations. Ultimately, I believe the book will be highly valued by the prospective student of language teaching, and it will be of little interest to the advanced researcher who seeks for new ideas and solutions.

Stern's outright declaration as to the theoretical nature of the book (p. 1) is important for the prospective reader as the latter is informed that theory is to be understood as "the thought, a method of analysis and synthesis, or a conceptual framework in which to place different observations, phenomena, or activities" (25—6). Thus the reader who views

theories more rigorously — as sets of falsifiable hypotheses, is not adivsed to read the book unless he changes his expectations.

The book is quantitatively a massive piece of work (582 pages). Consequently, it provides an enormous amount of pure information that some categories of reader may find extremely useful. The volume includes six major parts (clearing the ground, historical perspectives, concepts of language, concepts of society, concepts of language learning, concepts of language teaching) each of which constitutes a thorough treatment of the issues in question. At times the reader might get the impression that he is reading some kind of encyclopedia. This is because the amount and kind of information supplied by the author is often astonishing, e.g., the fact that Whorf worked for a fire insurance company (p. 204). The book in fact abounds in details, which will perhaps irritate some readers and stimulate others. Chapter 6, which I personally find very appealing, is a very good example of how a great deal of detailed historical information and some general conclusions pertaining to language teaching can be presented clearly and forcefully.

Detailed as the presentation is, Stern's book is not free from omissions. For instance, in his long list of events which were critical to language teaching (pp. 104—112) there does not appear the foundation of IATEFL, nor its German language equivalent — Internationaler Deutschlehrerverband, although the foundation of such organizations as TESOL is mentioned.

One merit of the book is that Stern raises a large number of familiar questions to which he does not pretend to know answers. For instance, the author brings up the question of how formal and communicative strategies contribute to effective language learning. Unanswered questions such as this can frequently be found in the book. The kinds of unanswered questions that Stern points to seem to very well reflect the current state of language teaching.

Through its clear and unpretentious language, the scope of issues covered, and the wealth of ideas included, Stern's book thus turns out to be an excellent introductory textbook which can be highly recommended to basically three categories of reader:

1. the practising teacher who is open to criticism and willing to reflect on what he is doing,

2. the university student of language teaching (TEFL, TESL), and

3. the language teaching researcher who cannot afford the time to study independently (i.e., in original sources) the sort of language teaching related material that Stern discusses at considerable length (e.g., the social aspects of language).

With reference to the second category, the book may be advocated for use especially in MA language teaching programs, as it not only introduces a myriad of fundamental notions and problems but also outlines or encourages very many avenues of potential "theoretical" and empirical research (I use Stern's terminology here).

However Stern's volume is disappointing at the conceptual level, i.e., the book lacks innovative theoretical ideas or proposals ('theoretical' is here used in the more rigorous sense). In this connection, I think that in notional, not practical terms, the development of the whole field of language teaching might advance conspicuously if researchers conceived theory as a set of falsifiable interrelated hypotheses, if not exclusively then at least in addition to the way Stern conceives the term. If not, new original ideas are likely to perpetually be blurred and dispersed in the abundance of ambiguities, imprecision and misapprehensions. I fully realize that the line of research I suggest is extremely difficult. Nevertheless I believe that that is the direction serious students of language teaching should follow.

The book includes an impressive list of items in the bibliographical section (over 40 pages of listings). It is not free from minor errors, however. For example, Fisiak 1981

appears in the text (p. 168), and the reference cannot be tracked down in the bibliography. Such an oversight can be duly forgiven in view of the multitude of entries that the bibliography includes.

The semantics of will in present-day British English: A unified account. By Liliane M. V. Haegeman. Pp. 179. Brussels: Paleis der Academien, 1983.
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As an attractive field of linguistic investigations modality has always been subject to detailed analyses, cf.: Close (1980), Palmer (1977, 1979, 1980), Wekker (1976, 1980), to mention just a few. Apart from traditional works many of the recent studies in semantics and pragmatics have tackled various aspects of modality, cf.: Davies (1979), Lyons (1977), Levinson (1983). However, as the author of the book under review has pointed out, (p. 9), the previous analyses have resulted in an undesirable proliferation of senses ascribed to modal verbs. Consequently, Haegeman's book on the semantics of _will_ is an attempt "to throw light on the semantic categories associated with this modal and to determine in how far the traditional proliferation of senses is adequate" (p. 9). The author's task is not only to systematize the current observations on English modality, but also to propose a unified account of the interpretations of _will_. It seems at the outset, that the book discussed might offer some novel apparatus for the analysis of modality along traditional lines but, as the author emphasizes (p. 11), frequently employing some pragmatic factors. Consequently, if the task were fulfilled, linguistics might gain a deeper insight into the problem of modality which could also prove useful for students of English. As will be shown below, being torn between the two alternatives, the author has hardly succeeded. A more detailed discussion of the contents will reveal why this is the case.

The book consists of a preface, three chapters and a conclusion. In the preface the author outlines the framework of further discussion, i.e. the traditional model, but with constant reference to the pragmatics of communication, so that the adopted corpus, cf.: Quirk (1962), will serve as a basis for the reached generalizations. Such a study is immediately endangered by limitations imposed by a fixed corpus and cannot escape a certain degree of subjectivity, which the author realizes at the outset (p. 10). Nonetheless, the reader feels tempted to juxtapose his expectations with the actual contents of the book.

Chapter 1 "General observations" deals with the syntax and semantics of _will_. Although the study is semantically oriented, too little attention seems to be paid to syntactic problems. Only four approaches to auxiliaries are presented, as if in passing, i.e..: the pretheoretic account (cf. OED), Palmer's traditional analysis (1965, 1974), Chomsky's generative syntax (1965) and generative semantics, which requires some linguistic knowledge on the reader's part. Consequently, being as it is too concise for a handbook, the work might still be considered in terms of a potential piece of research. This expectation is ruined already in the next section of the chapter devoted to the semantics of _will_.

As opposed to the syntactic analysis, its semantic counterpart is exhaustive to the point of being overloaded with details, despite the author's claim that it is impossible to provide a complete list of all the uses of _will_ or to achieve an internal consistency in this respect (p. 19). The illustrative examples occupying four pages confuse the reader, also due to the abundance of labels further obscured by many detailed subdivisions. A sample might be worth quoting at this point. The category of FUTURE comprises pure and coloured future. These, in turn, are subclassified into several categories each, so that the former comprises conditionals, commands, promises, threats, etc., and the latter willingness, intention, as well as promises, threats, etc. (pp. 20—23). Note the striking termino-

logical confusion resulting in a mixture of tokens taken over from the traditional approach and the speech-act theory. Besides, one might wonder how to distinguish between 'pure' vs. 'coloured' promises or threats.

Be that as it may, the described mode of presentation is the best justification for the author's preliminary contention concerning the total confusion in the field. The need for a more lucid account seems unquestionable at this point. But before such a proposal is put forth, the author proceeds with some methological issues. Thus, the subchapter on semantic classification is further subdivided into methodology of semantic description whose initial part deals with the dichotomy of homonymy and polysemy. It strikes the reader as a bit of an exaggeration to multiply the number of issues tackled at a time which, contrary to the premeditated aim of the book, obscures rather than clarifies the mode of presentation.

The methodological discussion first concentrates on the opposition between homonymy and polysemy. Several approaches to the problem are demonstrated and subjected to criticism, e.g.: Close (1980), Palmer (1965, 1974), Perlmutter (1970), and others. Having refuted the above mentioned anlyses, the author contends that the description of _will_ should escape the danger of vagueness by either seeing its various readings in terms of well-defined ambiguity or relating them to contextual features and pragmatic factors (p. 29).

Another reason for advocating a novel approach to _will_ has been attributed to the vagueness of the relevant metalanguage. Hence, the terms used for the semantic description of _will_ are considered imprecise and ambiguous, however to counterbalance them the author offers nothing but a trivial and simplistic criticism of the labels used so far. It is painfully obvious that "the more specific the label is, the fewer examples it can describe adequately" (p. 32). The conclusion is analogous in nature as it postulates a revision of the traditional glosses in terms of some formal and testable evidence (p. 34).

The long-awaited pragmatic issues emerge in the section on meaning and context. The problem boils down to how much of the utterance meaning is conveyed by _will_ as such, cf. for instance, Jespersen (1931/61). The section ends with a statement being as correct as it is dangerous for the author's own analysis. Thus, the confusion as to the semantic overtones of modals springs from the corpus-based discussions where there is no absolute control over the data (p. 37). As will be shown below, that is exactly what the author herself is guilty of.

The two final sections of the chapter are devoted to the analysis of _will_ as envisaged by Palmer and other authors. The selection of Palmer (1974) as the basis for further investigations has been given a twofold motivation whose validity is, nonetheless, questionable. Firstly, Palmer's work is considered the most comprehensive of all those written on the subject, but in support of this opinion the reader is referred to Haegeman's own review of the book (1981) and to the last section of Chapter 1. Secondly, Palmer's work is said to have often been used as a secondary basis in other analyses, which is followed by the single example of Wekker (1976). The chapter is concluded with a survey of five uses of _will_ as classified according to formal criteria. Palmer's analysis, highlighted by the author, serves as a point of reference for other approaches, cf. Boyd and Thorne (1969), Huddleston (1976), and Leech (1969).

As has been pointed out, the author adopts a traditional framework of presentation, hence producing nothing more than a detailed textbook on the modal _will_. However, the formal resemblance to the works of Allen (1966) and Zandvoort (1969) (both quoted in the bibliography) would not be harmful in itself, if it were not for two reasons. Firstly, the author's preconceived objectives are much more ambitious and secondly, the selection of the traditional framework is not clearly motivated. Haegeman claims to be following

Quirk, et al. (1972) as a landmark of the traditional approach, whereas the authors explicitly state in the preface (1972:v) that their analysis draws upon various linguistic trends.

Chapter 2 concentrates on the basic semantic contrasts pertaining to *will*, i.e.: futurity, omnitemporality and volition. This part of the study constitutes an elaboration of the issues signalled previously and is carried out in an analogous manner. The author presents her own observations on the semantics of *will* supported by examples from the corpus. The theoretical discussion winds up with a conclusion and a hypothesis which is subject to testing and verification in Chapter 3.

The section on futurity again strikes the reader as a longish list of problems to be discussed. Initially, the author deals with the distinction between futurity and the present vs. the past. A crucial contrast is signalled at this point, i.e.: non-factual events as opposed to counterfactual ones. However, the problem is approached without any reference to such related issues as truth commitment, possible worlds, etc. It is merely employed to emphasize the non-factual nature of future events (p. 54). Henceforth, non-factuality is used as one of the semantic characteristics of *will*. Moreover, *will* turns out to comprise the features of a contingent and a conditional modal. An imprecise use of these terms has given rise to a confusion, and the author observes on the basis of the corpus:

> "By using *will* when expressing future events the speaker opts for a maximal subjective commitment with respect to the eventual future reference (–) The subjective speaker-related certainty is bounded off by the non-factuality inherent to all modal utterances". (p. 61)

This explains the contradictory uses the of terms 'conditional' and 'contingent', since some authors stress the former and contrast *will* with non-modal present tenses, whereas others stress the latter contrasting *will* with other modals. Thus, both terms, i.e.: non-factuality and actuality serve as semantic variables in the present analysis. The third gloss emerges as a result of a pragmatic observation. However trivial it may sound, the author states that native speakers prefer other forms of expressing futurity rather than *will*, in sentences which focus on the present state of affairs (op. cit. 65). The term used to characterize this feature of *will* is labelled event-time orientation.

As the three glosses describing the semantics of future *will*, i.e.: non-factuality, actuality and event-time orientation, have been singled out, an attempt is made to fit the remaining uses of *will* into this trichotomy. Although the author finally succeeds in analysing both omnitemporality and volition within her semanto-pragmatic framework, the arbitrariness of some conclusions cannot escape criticism. Haegeman's seemingly elegant solution shares, on the one hand, the faults of a data-based study, and on the other hand, those of the hybrid, traditional-pragmatic approach. To give a few illustrations. In the discussion of omnitemporal *will* the corpus data are supposed to demonstrate that this use of *will* is common in present-day English, being more often found in writing than in speech (p. 68). It is not the observation itself that should be questioned, but rather its minimal explanatory adequacy. Many other statements concerning omnitemporality reach the point of tautologies, e.g.: "the reading of a sentence with omnitemporal *will* is unique if the sentence refers to a unique event" (p. 76); "adverbials of time will ascribe time specification to sentences with omnitemporal *will*" (p. 77). Despite its faults, the section winds up with a conjecture that might result in an interesting pragmatic solution. Thus, labels such as 'future', 'volition', etc. can all be seen as single characterizations of the occurrence of basic *will* in context, but they should not be taken to identify it as having several meanings in itself (p. 77).

Analogous conclusions are reached in the final section of the chapter. On the basis of pragmatic tests the author rejects the paraphrases of volitional *will* in terms of other

verbs. However, the criticism reaches a point of absurdity as regards the restrictions on nouns and verbs occurring with volitional *will*. Although the author realizes the necessity of imposing such restrictions, the linguist is required to attain Platonic ideals in defining such notions as 'ergative', 'verb of doing', etc. (p. 84). This goes back to on-going controversies as to the definitions of the terms 'pragmatics', 'presupposition', and many others (cf. Kempson 1975, 1977; Stalnaker 1972, 1974). As the alternative to the rejected classifications of verbs the author proposes an arrangement of propositions into a hierarchic system. In spite of her claims, it is by no means a novel approach to the problem. Firstly, it employs the well-known distinction between events and states; secondly, the relation between sets representing this dichotomy is presented in a twofold manner (on a triangle and a tree-diagram (op. 85–87), which bear a clear resemblance to numerous instances of predicate scales, cf. Ross's squishes and also Kryk (1982), Rosenberg (1975). The chapter is concluded with a statement predictable from the pragmatically-oriented analysis. Thus, the author treats *will* as neutral with respect to the contrast I±VOLITIONI, so that it normally renders its basic meaning, i.e. non-factuality, actuality and event-time orientation. However, it is the context that provides clues for the volitional or non-volitional interpretations (p. 97).

The unified account is tested for its application in Chapter 3, although the procedure seems redundant in the light of the previous discussion. Nonetheless, the author gives an additional justification for her approach to *will* because "its semantics has been unexplained due to the negligence of some crucial pragmatic factors" (p. 98). Consequently, the interpretations of *will* associated with some grammatical persons are given due attention, e.g.: first person declaratives, third person volition, *will-you* directives, and others. The analysis employs the whole spectrum of pragmatic procedures, e.g.: the readings of the first person declarative are explained in terms of a formal test analogous to that of presupposition cancellation, cf. Kempson (1975), Wilson (1975); the meanings of sentences are accounted for by means of speaker's intentions, cf. Menzel (1975), and conventional implicature, cf. Grice (1975), Gordon and Lakoff (1975). The idea of a pragmatic framework seems to be challenging but the abundance of procedural apparatus ends up in chaos. Suffice it to say that apart from the above mentioned pragmatic solutions Haegeman also includes speech-act theory and the theory of preferred interpretations, cf. Wilson (1975); and some of them appear without any reference in the bibliography, e.g.: Menzel (1975), Wilson (1975).

In the unified account of *will* the author tries to employ the pragmatic apparatus, though she realizes later (p. 126) that a pragmatic account of linguistic performance has not been worked out to a sufficient extent. Thus the analysis oscillates between some pragmatic solutions, still drawing upon the traditional model where necessary, e.g.: in the discussion on the second person *will*. The chapter winds up with some formal evidence supporting the conclusions, i.e. justifying the ambiguity of *will* in the light of the unified approach. Relevant explanations are offered by the analysis of *will* in passive constructions and conditional clauses.

To conclude, the book, being a traditional work with some indiscriminately employed pragmatic notions, is too detailed and confusing for students, and it is too simplistic for a serious contribution to linguistics. Consequently, the reader, having gone through conclusions attached to consecutive chapters, does not expect anything enlightening from the concluding Chapter 4. This is indeed the case, despite its graphic form. Thus a matrix of interpretations and relations depicting the semantic readings of *will* is presented in the form of a table and a tree-diagram, respectively. The final elegant formalization does not, however, increase the explanatory adequacy or scientific sophistication of the discussed work.

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Sociolinguistics. By R. A. Hudson. Pp. 250. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
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To anyone even superficially acquainted with the branch of linguistics known as sociolinguistics Hudson's book will appear as a highly refreshing (and somewhat astonishing) presentation of the problems concerned. Perhaps the most striking feature of the book is the lack of self-consciousness vis-à-vis linguistics in general (i.e., structural or formal linguistics) which results from the author's conviction that linguistics *must* be social (Hudson 1980:19f), that an asocial study is simply incomplete, and that language (a controversial concept, as will be seen below), being nearly totally a part of culture (p. 81) cannot be studied in isolation from society. Undoubtedly most books which provide a general survey of the field (cf. Dittmar 1976, Bell 1976, Halliday 1978, to mention only a few) reveal a similar bias, but Hudson's work seems to mark a delicate but nevertheless momentous shift of balance in the treatment of sociolinguistics as such: no longer a poor relation, but *the* approach, *the* study, *the* linguistics. In other words, Hudson's book is a proof of the coming-of-age of sociolinguistics as a fully-fledged, self-assured branch of humanities. It seems all the more interesting, therefore, to see, not what reasons does the author give for the necessity of a social study of language (as these are obvious), but, rather, how does he envisage the general social theory of language and how does he tackle the relevant sociolinguistics issues.

As mentioned above, Hudson sees the social study of language as the only one through which its nature can be truly known (p. 5, 19). (Cf. Halliday (1971) who remarked that "the ultimate nature of language is explained in terms of its function in the social structure", ibid.: 69.) It is important to note, however, that Hudson significantly reduces his field of interest and opts for sociolinguistics, that is, study of language in relation to society as opposed to the sociology of language which takes the society as its starting point (p. 5). Secondly, he dispenses with the large field of the so-called "macro sociolinguistics" stating that "macro studies generally throw less light on the nature of language" (p. 5). Of the two, the second limitation is more important (as he rightly notices, the difference between sociolinguistics and the sociology of language is very much that of emphasis, p. 5). This

allows him to omit a number of topics a reader might have expected to find in a textbook on sociolinguistics (such as multilingualism, language policy, etc.), and thus to concentrate on what he finds crucial: a theory of language described in terms of an individual speaker and his linguistic means (cf. p. 12 ff and passim).

The term "linguistic means" has been chosen deliberately by the present author as one that is perhaps most neutral. No sociolinguist (or at least one who takes to heart Hudson's dislike of established concepts) would dare to use the terms "language", "dialect" or "variety" as analytical categories after having read his book. Instead, Hudson introduces the concept of *linguistic items* (p. 22) as those "individual bits of language to which some sociolinguistic statements need to refer, where more global statements are not possible" (p. 22). Sets of items with a similar social distribution form a variety (p. 24), which means that it may cover several languages, or dialects, or only several items — the defining feature being "by whom, and when the items concerned are used" (p. 25).

One cannot but agree with Hudson's argument against the notions of "language" and "dialect" in so far as purely linguistic features are concerned (he finds that the only category of distinction between the two is that of prestige, an extralinguistics feature, p. 32, 34—7). More surprisingly, he argues against the notion of variety as well (p. 38—44). He bases his argument on the fact that isoglosses do not delimit varieties (p. 40) and rejects the concepts of both regional and social varieties (both in terms of registers and dialects, p. 48ff) on the same grounds. Another category well established in sociolinguistics that does not find favour in Hudson's eyes is that of a speech community. After surveying various definitions (p. 25ff) he rejects the notion as defined in terms of a group and, drawing on Le Page and Bolinger, prefers to define it in terms of an individual speaker/hearer who locates himself in the multi-dimensional world and adapts his behaviour to groups (Hudson 1980: 27ff). He further suggests that speech communities do not exsist in reality but only as "prototypes" in the minds of people (p. 30). Thus there are no languages, no dialects, no varieties, no speech communities — "all that exists are people and items, and people may be more or less similar to one another in the items they have in their language" (p. 40).

Granting that he is right about the difficulty of clearly defining those notions, it seems that following his own prototype-based approach (about which more below) he could have easily stayed content with a prototypical concept of a "language" or "register" and not have demanded an objective and exhaustive definition. Why cannot the concept of "speech community" (happily used at least since Bloomfield) exist in the mind of sociolinguists (including Hudson) if it may do so in the case of other people? The subject-matter of sociolinguistics — i.e., "language" in relation to "society" (as he has rejected the notion of "speech community", one would expect Hudson to question the notion of "society" as well) is simply unwieldable without the crude concepts of language, variety or speech community. Incidentally, Hudson himself finds it difficult to proceed without the help of those terms and uses them freely (but "in an informal way", p. 71). It seems surprising that having subjected the notions of language, etc., to such a close scrutiny, he apparently finds no problems about the status of the language/speech dichotomy (he defines speech as "shorter or longer strings of linguistic items used on particular occasions for particular purposes" and language as "knowledge of linguistic items and their meanings" (sic!), p. 106) and only notes on passant that there is a trend in linguistics for the barrier between language structure and language use to break down (p. 220) — a tame and inexhaustive statement about perhaps the most fundamental categories in linguistics.

The linguistics items, which alone remain and are the object of description, are, among others, lexical items, syntactic constructions and phonological and morphological

patterns (p. 44; 189) which are "associated with a social description which says who uses it and when" (p. 51) and the social distribution of which may be unique or else cut across a number of individuals (p. 51). Thus sociolinguistic generalizations about the relation of language to society (in terms of linguistic items used by speakers in relation to different aspects of society) will be generalizations about the *internal structure* of language (e.g., what are the formal constraints on code-switching, or what are the formal restrictions on borrowing, p. 56—8, not to mention variables, p. 140). The relevant information is the social functions of items in terms of variation (as Hudson claims that we possibly store "information about all the social context for individual linguistic items", p. 232). He suggests that of the four types of items, it is *syntax* which marks cohesion in society, while *vocabulary* and *pronunciation* would be the markers of divisions, the latter reflecting "the permanent social group with which the speaker identifies" (p. 48).[1]

As language always relates to concepts which are shared or believed to be shared (p. 81), and the elements of language relevant to linguistic study are items, then both items and their meanings, as well as the *linguistically relevant social categories* (p. 83) are concepts (p. 81—3). Hudson rejects the criterial feature theory of concepts (on grounds of the impossibility of identifying sufficient and necessary conditions for an object to count as an instance of a particular concept (p. 78) although, as discussed above, he found himself unable to follow his own argument when it came to traditional sociolinguistic categories) and argues for a prototypical approach (p. 78ff). Linguistic items, therefore, as analytical categories, are prototypes, the fact which, according to Hudson, can help us explain how people categorize social factors to which they relate language. "Speakers locate themselves in a multi-dimensional space relative to the rest of their social lives" (p. 83) and each dimension is defined by "a particular concept of a typical speaker or typical situation" (ibid.) — in other words, a prototype. If, as Hudson claims, linguistic items (not only lexical ones, cf. p. 234) may be individually related to social contexts (in terms of the relevant information memorized, p. 232), then the prototype approach may well account for this seemingly unfeasible task (although, in view of Hudson's severe demands as to the clarity of categories, it may be unable to help him to account for the relation in terms of a linguistic description). As pointed out by Hudson, a prototype can be learned on the basis of a very small number of instances and thus predicts that the boundaries of a particular concept are blurred, which in turn allows for a creative application of concepts by the speakers (p. 79) and for the use of inference in the boundary-cases by the listeners. This argument sounds convincing and is well substantiated by the evidence (cf. p. 88—94).

The notion of speaker/listener brings us to another topic which for some time now has been included within sociolinguistics, namely, discourse. This, however, is perhaps the most disappointing part of Hudson's book and in its range goes little beyond Firth's observations about the structuring of talk (cf. Firth 1935). Yet Firth did notice that "most of the give-and-take of conversation in our everyday life is stereotyped and very narrowly conditioned by our particular type of culture" (ibid.:31); Hudson, admitting the existence of norms[2] in the ordering of talk (Hudson 1980:116) suggests that most talk probably has a very loose kind of structure (p. 133) and proposes three types of structuring in discourse (while allowing for more possibilities), namely, topic, turn-taking and "encyclopedic knowledge" (p. 131—3). He makes no mention of the invariant rules of discourse suggested by Labov and Fanshel (1977) and the very *detailed* turn-taking mechanism discussed by Sacks et al. (1974). He does mention (only) the units of discourse proposed

[1] Hudson's usage of the term "morphology", which is included among the item types, is unclear: he seems to understand the notion as embracing inflectional (and derivational?) morphemes only.

[2] It seems interesting to note that Hudson deliberately uses the term "norms" as not associated with any specific sanction for those who break them (p. 116). For an opposite view, see Labov 1972, 1972a.

by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), but fails to observe that these are formal categories (defined in functional terms) of a theory of discourse and apart for "exchange" do not describe what occurs in talk (for a revised version, cf. Coulthard and Brazil 1979). Apparently only adjacency pairs find his favour (Hudson 1980:131f), which is not the case with the highly intricate mechanism for topic change in an interaction, discussed at length by Schegloff and Sacks (1973). Adjacency pairs, however, are only basic organizational units which (may) enter into the more complex unit called *single conversation* (consisting of *openings*, *topical structure* and *closings*), which is the fundamental unit of overall structured organization of conversational activity (ibid.: 392). In a similar vein, the problem of topical structuring of talk is dismissed too lightly. According to Schegloff and Sacks (1973) the topical structure appears to be the *basic* ordering reference of the participants' practices and reveals the participants' *sense of the order of conversation*. Again, the observance of the rules of discourse by the participants seems to make the rules as invariant as those of grammar (cf. Labov 1972, Labov 1972a, Labov and Fanshel 1977), a fact which defies Hudson's remark about the loose structuring of talk. It is undoubtedly difficult to decide what is deviant in discourse (not only because some context can always be found, cf. Widdowson 1979, but due to the option of silence) so that the theory of discourse may be only a tentative one (cf. Stubbs 1981) but there appears to exist a much more rigid structuring of conversation that Hudson allows it to be.

In 1978, the time of writing the book (cf. Hudson 1980:1), the number of publications on the analysis of discourse had been considerable and even if Hudson deliberately limited his presentation of the subject, some of his omissions are truly astonishing. Moreover, he is vague about the basic unit of sociolinguistics, that of a speech act.[*] Although the concept is as difficult to define as that of "language" or "dialect", to call it a "smallest bit of language" (p. 112) seems singularily uninformative. Following Austin, Hudson mentions the illocutionary and perlocutionary acts, (p. 110—12), omitting the detailed discussion in Labov and Fanshel (1977) and mentioning, only en passant, Grice's Principle (p. 118).

A more detailed discussion of the omissions and gaps in Hudson's presentation of discourse analysis is beyond the scope of this review. Nevertheless, it is precisely his emphasis on the individual and his linguistico-social concepts (prototypes) as constituting the prolegomena to a (social) theory of language which would lead the reader to expect a more profound survey of the field.

The lack of discussion about the notions of "speech act" and the competence/performance distinction mentioned above are only two examples of a more general phenomenon found in Hudson's work. He seems to have dispensed with the traditional sociolinguistic categories to such an extent that he barely troubles to define those he does use. For instance, he does not draw any distinction between the notions of sentence and utterance, and apart from a few cases uses the term "sentence" throughout (e.g. in the discussion of the meaning of sentences, p. 83) without bothering to define the usage. He uses the term "language" having explicitely refuted the notion and the reader has to refer to his common sense (or his prototype?) in order to understand how is the term meant. The reason for this may be Hudson's wish to clear the categorial field and reduce the relevant concepts to those which do not beg definition (or can be given one), but such a procedure is highly unsatisfactory and make the reader sigh for less prototypes, and more clearly defined concepts.

As mentioned above, Hudson's aim is to propose a (social) theory of language, with

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[*] In view of the prospective-retrospective nature of meaning, however, the fundamental interactionist unit would be an exchange, cf. Coulthard and Brazil 1979.

linguistic items carrying information about the social concepts, defined in terms of an individual user who locates himself in the multi-dimensional space, as the main analytical categories. If linguistic items and social concepts to which they relate are prototypes, then, according to Hudson, evidence could be found for the social, prototypical nature of all levels of language (p. 234). Such a theory, he notices, is both flexible (the analytical categories are prototypes) and fragmentary (makes little use of large-scale aggregates such as "language" or "speech community" (p. 231)). Attractive as it sounds, there seems to be precious little evidence that this is really the case; nor does he offer (apart from his discussion of variables, p. 140, 188—90) any concrete suggestions about methodology. Finally, his view that the only linguistics is sociolinguistics (p. 19) is acceptable as an article of faith, but does not prove that "asocial" linguistics produces theories of language ridden with "serious flaws" (p. 19). One can easily agree that a social study of language, as pointed out by Firth (1935), will give a full picture of what language is and how it works, but there is no reason why formal approaches should not continue their delicate inquires into the fomal structure of language. Various branches of linguistics should rather be seen as complementary, not exclusive, so as to give us a full description of what — contrary to Hudson — we shall continue to call a language. Despite these objections, however, the book is highly interesting (although, with its aversion to metalanguage, not to be recommended to beginners in the sociolinguistic field) and does undoubtedly constitute an important step towards a general theory of language seen as social semiotic.

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English Syntactic Structures by Flor Aarts and Jan Aarts. Pp. 189. Oxford: Pergamon Press. 1892.
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The book entitled *English Syntactic Structures* is organized into two parts. After an introduction (pp. 1—14) dealing with linguistic descriptions in general and with some basic notions in syntactic analysis, the first main part, *The units of grammatical descriptions* (pp. 17—98), is devoted to such units of grammatical description as the morpheme, word, phrase, and sentence, whereas the second part, *Structures* (pp. 99—171), presents the structure of the word, phrase and sentence (including its functions and realizations). The two parts are followed by an appendix consisting of *A guide to sentence analysis* (pp. 172—183), where a number of examples is given to illustrate how sentences can be analysed, and there is a list of abbreviations (pp. 183—184). The book ends in a fairly exhaustive index.

The book is not only intended to serve as an introduction to English syntax but also to teach students how to recognize and analyse its categories and principal structures and to develop the students' skill in syntactic argumentation.

The book analyses English syntactic structures within the framework of a traditional approach. The terms used here are familiar, however, few of them have been introduced by the authors themselves. It should be underlined that the terminology employed is very explicit and consistent.

The book reviewed is fairly comprehensive, detailed, but concise which constitutes its principal value. Also the authors should particularly be praised for the arrangement of *English Syntactic Structures*, which is very clear and logical. The graphic illustrations such as tables visualize and summarize certain problems very well, as e. g. Table 2.13 (p. 52) which shows two subclasses of possessive pronouns, and their varied forms dependent on person, number and gender, or Table 3.4 (p. 76), which compares the finite and non-finite verb phrase paradigms.

It seems, however, that the authors of *English Syntactic Structures* should have included some additional explanations as in most cases the analysis consists of such detailed information. The comments are as follows:

1) On p. 20, as well as in Table 2.1 (p. 21), the authors mention *-ward(s)* and *-wise* as typical derivational suffixes of the class of adverbs. It seems that the ending *-ly* should have been suggested as it is far more frequent than the other two.

2) On p. 24 they state that two different plural formations are in use for different words ending in *-o*. Thus, *echoes, potatoes* but *kilos, photos*. It would have been advisable to give a more specific rule saying that nouns in *-o* form their plural by adding *-es* if they are either of very frequent use or of relatively early introduction to English (e. g. *tomato — tomatoes, hero — heroes*), whereas they add *-s* only if they are foreign or abbreviated words (e. g. *bamboo — bamboos, kilo — kilos*).

3) On p. 25 the authors mention that some foreign words take both a native and a foreign plural as in the case of *genius — geniuses — genii*. It should have been added that then they differ in meaning. Thus, *geniuses* denotes *very intelligent people*, whereas *genii* indicates *supernatural beings*.

4) On p. 27 the authors overgeneralize the rule that proper nouns do not occur in the plural. There is an exception that surnames can be used in the plural and then they denote a family, e. g. *Mr. Brown* and *Mrs. Brown=the Browns* or *Mr James* and *Mrs. James=the Jameses*.

5) On p. 46 F. Aarts and J. Aarts maintain that the indefinite article *a* is used before

consonants. It should have been added that it is also used before vowels that sound like consonants, e. g. *a university*. On the other hand, it is said that *an* occurs before vowels. It should have also been mentioned that *an* may just as well occur before the mute *h*, e. g. *an hour*.

6) While discussing pronouns (pp. 48 ff.), they have introduced eight subclasses, omitting the group of indefinite pronouns (*you, they, one*). Although these pronouns have been discussed under two different headings, as personal pronouns and in discussion of the *so/one* group, it would have been worth mentioning separately that this subclass of pronouns exists and performs a particular function in the language.

7) On p. 49. the authors claim that personal pronouns are used in the subjective case when they function as the subject of a sentence. It should have been added that they are also used in the subjective case when they function as a complement occurring after the copula *to be*, e. g. *It was he who broke the vase*. Also, it seems that more attention should have been paid to the discussion of the personal pronoun *it* (e. g. its use in the expression of time, distance, etc.).

8) On p. 52 the authors enumerate all relative pronouns. It would have been clearer if case names had been attached to each relative pronoun as has been done with personal pronouns (cf. Table 2.11, p. 49).

9) On p. 53 we find a rule explaining when the pronoun *that* is used instead of *which*. However, the rule is not exhaustive, as the pronoun *that* also occurs when the ordinal number is included in the antecedent (e. g. *Mr. Brown was the first person that delivered a speech*.) and when there are such antecedents as: *any, some, no* (as well as their compound forms), *none, few, only, little, much* (e. g. *Nobody that was present at the meeting opposed Mr. Smith*).

10) On p. 95 the authors discuss the imperative and state that "if a subject is present it is usually *you* but as a rule the subject is lacking". This is followed by three examples of subjectless imperatives and one with the subject *you*. It would have been quite reasonable to draw the reader's attention to the almost equally frequent type of imperative formed with *let*, e. g. *Let's go home*.

Finally, the book prompts a few minor comments on specific points.

It would probably have been simpler to identify different parts of speech if five signals of syntactic structures had been introduced, inflectional suffixes, derivational affixes, word order, intonation, and function words. The authors actually use most of these syntactic signals when identifying different parts of speech but they do not name them.

On p. 81 we come across a peculiar recognition of the simple sentence. According to the authors such sentences as e. g. *We came to the conclusion that a conflict was inevitable* are regarded as simple ones. They argue that the finite *that*-clause does not function as a clause, but that it is embedded in a noun phrase. It seems, however, that both traditionalists and transformationalists would reckon this sentence as a complex one. A traditionalist would argue that the sentence is a complex one since it contains two verbs, whereas a transformationalist would say that it consists of two verbs in the deep structure and thus it has to be recognized as a complex sentence.

Finally, on p. 85 the reader finds a strange example of a verbless clause, namely: *Unable to make up his mind, he looked at us in silence*. It seems that this sentence cannot be recognized as containing a verbless clause but rather as a non-finite clause since *to make up* is a verb.

Despite these critical remarks, I think that *English Syntactic Structures* is a very useful introduction to English syntax in view of its careful explanation and exemplification of the facts of syntactic structures in English. It may be highly recommended to students of English philology.

Problem-solving strategies for writing. By Linda Flower. Pp. XIII+210. New York:
Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1981.
Reviewed by Leszek Skibniewski.
Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznań.

The main purpose of this review is to convince both the teacher and student of writing
that Linda Flower's *Problem-solving strategies for writing* (hereafter PSSW) is an excellent
composition textbook directed to anyone interested in acquiring powerful writing stra-
tegies, and that they will benefit more from reading and using PSSW than from any other
single book on writing published so far.

Present knowledge about composing can be briefly summarized as follows. Writing
is a complex psychological process consisting of three main stages (pre-writing, writing,
re-writing) which occur recursively and which can be further subdivided into distinct
phases or steps. Pre-writing is a stage which intellectually prepares the writer to put pen to
paper by associating thoughts and language. Writing involves developing the topic by
means of discovering in oneself or elsewhere ideas and connections among ideas which
express the writer's intended meaning. Re-writing consists of rereading the first draft
and revising it to communicate to the reader in an organized, coherent way what the
writer has found that he has written (large scale revising). Revising also entails editing
for syntax and lexicon (small scale revising). Good writers have been found to spend
their time during pre-writing thinking about the effect that they want to have on their
audience. Writing, they often pause to plan what to write next and to make revisions.
Re-writing, they reshape their prose for the needs of their readers and introduce numerous
changes on the word, sentence, and paragraph level.

The major implication of these findings is that in the course of instruction students
should be led through the successive stages of the composing process of good writers. This
is how Linda Flower teaches writing in her book, which is a sufficient recommendation
for PSSW. But the book can be praised for more things.

Flower's strategies draw on all four existent philosophies of composition suggested
by Richard Fulkerton. The approach presented in PSSW is basically rhetorical in that
it teaches writing as a purpose-directed communication between writer and reader. It
makes use of the expressionist and mimetic philosophies in the stage of generating ideas
in words. Finally, the formalist philosophy can be found in the two steps of editing writing.

Last but not least, the book is written in keeping with research in cognitive psycho-
logy, and everything that Linda Flower advocates in PSSW has sound psychological
bases of experimental findings. If this is still not enough of a recommendation, let me add
that PSSW is first to combine in one volume all these strengths in the form of practical
strategies which tell what to do in order to write effectively.

Flower directs her strategies to native English composition students. However, advan-
ced second and forein language learners are similar to English composition students since
they are already able to express their thoughts, feelings and opinions in the target lan-
guage. Consequently, the strategies of PSSW can be applied in the second and foreign
language advanced composition classroom.

Of the twelve chapters of PSSW *Chapters 1—3* are introductory in that they provide
grounds for adopting the problem-solving approach to writing. *Chapters 4* and *8* are illu-
strative in that *Chapter 4* signals the problems looked at in detail in *Chapters 5—7*, while
Chapter 8 gives reason to the discussion of problems tackled in *Chapters 9* and *10*. *Chapters
11* and *12* deal with editing writing for purpose, style and clear organization, which has
been the main subject of the "finished product oriented" writing handbooks.

The premise made in *Chapter 1* is that writing is a thinking process, more specifically,

a problem-solving process. In order to solve problems people draw both on their knowledge
about the subject and on a set of problem-solving strategies. The goal of PSSW is to offer
a set of strategies for dealing with writing as a problem to solve.

Chapter 2 begins with a statement that one of the basic reasons for writing is to deal
with problems. But problems only exist when someone feels a conflict. Consequently,
people write to define and analize problems, and this helps them solve these problems. Six
steps in analyzing a problem, as well as a method of checking whether this analysis is
complete, are discussed in detail.

Chapter 3 contains a detailed discussion of the composing strategies that often cause
trouble for writers and the composing strategies that work. Next, a problem-solving
approach to writing is critically discussed against the backkground of the perfect draft
and the inspiration approaches which are both rejected as ineffective. A problem-solving
approach to writing stresses a goal-directed kind of thinking and draws on a variety of
efficient strategies or heuristics. Since a heuristic procedure is only a high probability way
to proceed, a writer needs to know a variety of alternative techniques and to be aware of
his own writing process in order to be able to draw on these alternative techniques.

In its first section, *Chapter 4* signals Linda Flower's nine Steps in the composing pro-
cess which, with a variety of strategies for taking them, are discussed in detail in the
remainder of PSSW. These nine Steps are:
PLANNING: 1. *Explore the Rhetorical Problem* 2. *Make a Plan*
GENERATING IDEAS IN WORDS: 3. *Use Creative Thinking* 4. *Organize Your Ideas*
DESIGNING FOR A READER: 5. *Know the Needs of Your Reader* 6. *Transform Writer-
    Based Prose into Reader-Based Prose*
EDITING FOR EFFECTIVENESS: 7. *Review Your Paper and Your Purpose* 8. *Test
    and Edit Your Writing* 9. *Edit for Connections and Coherence.*
These strategies are an organized description of the things good writers normally do when
they write. Each step can be taken in a number of ways and it is up to the writer which
to choose when. The order in which the writer will take the Steps will depend on the
stage he is in and on how his writing develops.

The second section of Chapter 4 brilliantly illustrates how a real college student went
through the stages of Planning and Generating Ideas in Words which are discussed at
length in Chapters 5—7.

Chapter 5 deals with the stage of Planning which involves two Steps:
Step One: Exploring the Rhetorical Problem helps the writer define his:
a) purpose or goal — what the writer wants to accomplish with his paper. Having defined
   his goal, the writer can produce a goal-based plan
b) reader — what the writer knows about the reader that matters. The reader is discussed
   in more detail in Chapter 9.
c) projected self — what relationship does the writer want to establish with his reader.
Step Two: Making a Plan helps the writer guide his thinking. Here three strategies are
offered:
1. Make your plan operational — operational plans are more concrete versions of goals.
   They give the writer clues about how to achieve their ultimate goal.
2. Sketch out a plan — and build it around your goals. At this stage of the writing process,
   however, writers may not know yet what exactly they want to say.
3. Reveal your plan to the reader — a clear statement of his purpose helps the writer focus
   on his problem and helps his audience read his paper as they are given a reason to read
   it. However, the writer does not set up his hierarchical plan until Step Four, Strategy 3;
   and only when he has set up his plan, can he reveal it to the reader.

As I have tried to show, Step Two of the writing process is a weak point in Linda

Flower's framework, as it can be eliminated for many writers. Its Strategy 1 can be handled at the stage of defining the purpose of the rhetorical problem (Step 1) and need not be repeated later; while its Strategies 2 and 3 most often follow Step Three — Using Creative Thinking to Generate Ideas.

Chapter 6 takes up *Step Three — Use Creative Thinking* the aim of which is to explore the writer's own knowledge in order to discover useful ideas stored in his memory and to create new ideas by forging connections among the old. Flower offers four alternative strategies of creative thinking:

1. Turn off the editor and brainstorm — goal-directed thinking governed by three rules:
   a) keeep writing
   b) do not try to censor or prefect as you go
   c) keep returning to the problem
2. Talk to your reader — imagine what your reader's response would be and what you would say back to him.
3. Systematically explore your topic — three alternative methods are given:
   a) use Aristotelian topics: definition, comparison and contrast, cause and effect, support from evidence
   b) use tagmemics: see your topic as a particle, wave, or part of a field
   c) use synectics: use personal, direct, symbolic, or fantasy analogy
4. Rest and incubate — this strategy is governed by three rules: a) before you stop work formulate the next unresolved problem you want to be thinking about, b) return to it from time to time, c) when a new idea comes to your mind, write it down.

Chapter 7 discusses *Step Four: Organize Your Ideas* whose aim is to turn good intuitions into well developed ideas that can be expressed in clear logical relationships to one another. Three alternative strategies are offered:

1. Develop your own code words — try to explain to your reader what you mean by your code words. This strategy is a transition between generating and organizing the writer's ideas and can be treated as an extension of the brainstorming technique.
2. Nutshell your ideas and teach them — in a few sentences try to lay out the whole substance of your paper and then try to teach it to your reader.
3. Build an issue tree — try to pull a hierarchical plan (tree) out of the ideas you have generated. The issue tree can be used for:
   a) organizing your brainstorming
   b) developing your paper — if the tree which organizes your brainstorming contains branches you do not know how to fill in, turn to brainstorming again, then find key words for your new ideas and fit them in your tree
   c) testing your draft — match the tree which organizes your brainstorming against the tree pulled out from your draft; introduce the necessary changes so that your draft carries out the hierarchical structure intended for your paper.

Chapter 8 is an exquisite illustration of how two real college students went through the stage of Designing for a Reader, the two steps of which are discussed in depth in Chapters 9 and 10.

Chapter 9 takes up *Step Five: Know the Needs of Your Reader.* It is now that the writer should clearly understand the needs, attitudes and knowlegde of his reader and should help him understand and remember the intended meaning of the written message. Two strategies are offered:
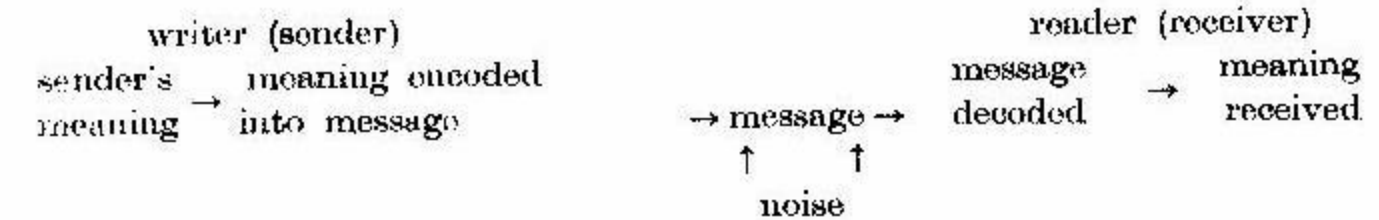
1. Analyze your audience — analyze your reader's:
   a) knowledge — what do you need to teach him about the subject so that he gets your intended meaning

   b) attitudes — what is his image of your subject. The more it differs from your own, the more you will have to do to make him see what you mean
   c) needs — analyze his needs so that you can adapt your writing to them
   However, the reader has already been analyzed in Step One, and this strategy could be seen as an elaborate extension of Step One.
2. Anticipate your reader's response — on the basis of the following model of communication that goes on between the writer and the reader:

writer (sender)		reader (receiver)
sender's → meaning encoded		message → meaning
meaning → into message	→ message →	decoded → received
	↑ ↑	
	noise	

Flower suggests that in order to anticipate the reader's response his strategies of decoding the message and creating meaning must be studied. Readers' short-term memory is limited to 7 ± 2 bits of information and this forces them to group information into meaningful chunks in order to understand it. So, when decoding a message and creating meaning:

a) readers try to fit new information into an old framework — therefore the writer should supply that framework by creating a context for his ideas
b) readers organize information into an unconscious hierarchical structure — therefore the writer should make his hierarchical structure clear to his readers
c) readers develop expectations and use them to process and understand the text — therefore the writer should create and fulfill expectations.

Chapter 10 take sup Step Six of the writing process: *Transform Writer-Based Prose into Reader-Base Prose.* It is now that the writer should use his knowledge of the reader's needs to develop his paper so that it communicates, not just expresses, his ideas. Four strategies are offered:

1. Set up a shared goal — find a reason for writing your paper and a reason for reading it that both you and your reader share; state it in your problem/purpose statement, and then organize ideas around it.
2. Develop a reader-based structure
   a) organize your paper around a purpose you share with your reader
   b) with your goal as the top level of your issue tree, organize youe ideas into a hierarchy
   c) use cues to make your hierarchical organization clear to your reader
   d) make your conclusions explicit
This strategy, however, is a restatement of what has already been said in Strategy 2 of Step Five and Strategy 1 of Step Six, and anticipates what will be offered in Strategy 3 of Step Six.
3. Give your readers cues — fulfill your readers' expectations by previewing your meaning, summarizing it, and guiding the reader along the way.
4. Develop a persuasive argument (Rogerian argument):
   a) first demonstrate an understanding of your reader's position
   b) avoid categorizing people or issues
   c) present your point in a non-antagonizing way.

Of the three steps included in the Stage of Editing for Effectiveness *Chapter 11* discusses Step Seven: *Review Your Paper and Your Purpose* and Step Eight: *Test and Edit Your Writing.* The aim of Step Seven is to check the writer's paper in a goal-directed way testing it against his plans and his reader's probable response. Two alternative strategies are offered:

1. Match your paper against your goals and plans — if the writer does not like the result he may have to return to Step One.
2. Simulate a reader's response — treat these simulated responses to the individual parts of your text as signals as to whether or not you need to increase your cues or redesign some parts of your presentation.

The aim of Step Eight is to achieve a more effective statement of the writer's meaning. Linda Flower offers two alternative strategies:

1. Edit for economy — economical prose uses concrete language. To achieve it, the method of key-word editing is suggested. It helps put powerful words in grammatically powerful places. This method consists of five steps: a) divide the sentence into meaningful units, b) identify the key words in each unit, c) cut out unnecessary words and build your statement around key-words, d) pack in more concrete words when possible, e) let the actors act (avoid passive voice).
2. Edit for a forceful style — in order to do it:
   a) lower the noun/verb ratio by rewriting the sentence using more verbs and fewer nouns, b) transform heavy nouns back into verbs, c) avoid weak linking verbs by using action verbs instead, d) transform negative expressions, e) transform passive constructions into active ones.

The aim of Step Nine: *Edit for Connections and Coherence*, which is discussed in *Chapter 12*, is to help the writer make sure that the relationships between his ideas are clear and that the logic of his writing's structure is evident to the reader. Two alternative strategies are offered:

1. Transform listlike sentences — of which two types are distinguished:
   a) transform listlike complex sentences, which abound in connective words and prepositions, by: 1. marking the prepositions and then promoting key words to grammatically powerful positions, 2. putting subordinate information into subordinate clauses, 3. transforming less important nouns into modifying words and eliminating unnecessary prepositional phrases.
   b) transform lists of simple sentences, which begin with the main subject and verb and contain few if any signal words (these signal that either coordinate or subordinate or modifying pattern is used), by: 1. varying the simple sentence beginnings, 2. combining more simple sentences per sentence, 3. increasing the number of signal words.
2. Reveal the inner logic of your paragraphs —
   a) by following one of the basic patterns readers expect. These include: 1. the topic-restriction-illustration-(topic) pattern, 2. the problem-solution pattern, 3. the cause and effect pattern, 4. chronological order
   b) by logically developing the paragraph around its main point. To test whether your paragraph is really built that way:
      1. pull a key word or phrase out of each sentence and sketch an issue tree; each sentence should be related to the top-level idea and should be either parallel or subordinate to the sentence preceding it
      2. if it is not so, the sentence should be deleted
      3. if the connections are not explicit enough, the sentence should be rewritten to make it fit in the issue tree.

Additionally, to make the underlying logical structure of the paragraph more explicit, Linda Flower suggests that writers use as many cues for the reader as possible. These include grammatical, punctuation, visual, and verbal cues. Discussing repetitions, she suggests that writers move from the old to new information in their sentences because

this meets the reader's expectations. The Chapter ends with a list of common words that can be employed as cues for the reader.

Each strategy presented in PSSW is illustrated with very straightforward examples. All of PSSW's twelve chapters are followed by a section entitled *Projects and Exercises*, which is a collection of useful exercises and contains valuable cues as to how to practically use the theoretical information presented in the chapter. Each chapter, except Chapters 4 and 8, is followed by a *Selected Bibliography* of items in which the reader can find more about what is discussed in the chapter.

I would like now to pass on to a discussion of the shortcomings of PSSW which I found teaching Linda Flower's strategies to students of English at Adam Mickiewicz University. These can be arranged in two groups:

1. Some of the strategies offered in PSSW are repeated and although this is done to stress their significance, such repetitions should be avoided to ensure economy of the framework. I can see two types of repetitions:
   a) what is offered in one strategy is in some way repeated in another — this kind of repetition may be eliminated by including the less inclusive strategy in the more inclusive one
   b) different aspects of the same strategy are taken up in different places of the writing process — this kind of repetition can be eliminated by grouping such strategies together.
2. Linda Flower implicitly treats her nine steps of the writing process as obligatory since she expects every successful writer to go through them all. All the strategies within these steps, however, are treated as alternatives. In other words, it is essential to lead students through all the steps of the writing process, but within each step the teacher has at his disposal a range of alternatives of which he can use the one that proves most effective with a given student or group of students. However, these alternative strategies are not equal in their power to generate good writing. Therefore, unless the teacher finds it otherwise for his specific students, I suggest to treat the most powerful strategy of a given step as essential to this step and teach it as the first priority. All the other (less powerful) strategies may be treated as optional and taught only when time allows or when the essential strategy has turned out ineffective for a particular student. This division into essential and optional strategies is trebly beneficial as it helps guide the writer in a more structured way, makes sure that he uses the most powerful strategies, and sets priorities for those teachers who, due to lack of time, can teach only some of the strategies offered in PSSW. Needless to say, essential strategies are established mainly for beginners who need more guiding. We can leave the choices as alternative for more experienced writers and those for whom the essential strategy has turned out ineffective. It should be pointed out, however, that only those strategies that are given in the first seven steps are not equal in their power to help generate effective writing (those considered essential should be listed first and those considered optional should follow). The strategies given in Steps Eight and Nine, on the other hand, are equal in their power to generate good writing because they apply to distinctly various writing problems. We cannot foresee in advance what stylistic and organizational inadequacies a given writer will have to fight in his text. Consequently, no priorities can be established here and I suggest that the four strategies for stylistic improvement be all treated equal.

Below I reproduce the steps and strategies for the composing process as they are presented in PSSW. Following it is a brief discussion of rearrangements suggested in light of the mentioned shortcomings. The rearrangements are then illustrated graphically.

PSSW'S STEPS AND STRATEGIES OF THE COMPOSING PROCESS

Step   I Explore the Rhetorical Problem
        Strategy 1: Define your a) purpose, b) reader, c) projected self
Step   II Make a Plan
        Strategy 1: Make your goals operational
                2: Sketch out a plan
                3: Reveal your plan to the reader
Step   III Use Creative Thinking
        Strategy 1: Turn off the editor and brainstorm
                2: Talk to your reader
                3: Systematically explore your topic
                4: Rest and incubate
Step   IV Organize Your Ideas
        Strategy 1: Develop your own code words
                2: Nutshell your ideas and teach them
                3: Build an issue tree
Step   V Know the Needs of Your Reader
        Strategy 1: Analyze your audience
                2: Anticipate your reader's response
Step   VI Transform Writer-Based Prose into Reader-Based Prose
        Strategy 1: Set up a shared goal
                2: Develop a reader-based structure
                3: Give your reader cues
                4: Develop a persuasive argument
Step   VII Review Your Paper nad Your Purpose
        Strategy 1: Match your paper against your goals and plans
                2: Simulate a reader's response
Step   VIII Test and Edit Your Writing
        Strategy 1: Edit for economy
                2: Edit for a forceful style
Step   IX Edit for Connections and Coherence
        Strategy 1: Transform listlike sentences
                2: Reveal the inner logic of your paragraphs

DISCUSSION OF REARRANGEMENTS

Step   I has only one strategy, so it is essential
Step   II Strategy 1 should be grouped with Strategy 1a/ of Step I because it extends that Strategy
        Strategy 2 should be grouped with Strategy 3 of Step IV because it extends that Strategy and additionally because most writers plan after they have generated their ideas
        Strategy 3 should be grouped with Strategy 3 of Step IV because a plan can be revealed to the reader only when it has been set up
Step   III Strategy 1 is the most powerful and therefore should be considered essential
Step   IV Strategy 1 should be grouped with Strategy 1 of Step III because it is an extension of that Strategy
        Strategy 3 is the most powerful and therefore should be considered essential

Step   V Strategy 1 should be grouped with Strategy 1b/ of Step I because it extends that Strategy. It is easier to generate ideas if they are directed to a well-defined audience
        Strategy 2 should be included in Strategy 2 of Step VI because it repeats part of the information given there
Step   VI Strategy 1 should be included in Strategy 2 of Step VI because it repeats part of the information given there
        Strategy 2 is the most powerful and inclusive and therefore should be considered essential
        Strategy 3 should be included in Strategy 2 of Step VI because it repeats part of the information given there
Step   VII no changes are postulated
Step   VIII Strategies 1 and 2 are equal in their power to generate good writing
Step   IX Strategies 1 and 2 are equal in their power to generate good writing

THE REARRANGED STEPS AND STRATEGIES OF THE COMPOSING PROCESS

(Strategies listed first in Steps I-V are essential; mainly for beginning writers)

Step   I Explore the Rhetorical Problem
        Strategy 1: Define: a) your purpose — make it operational
                       b) your audience (their knowledge, needs, attitudes)
                       c) projected self
Step   II Use Creative Thinking
        Strategy 1: Systematically explore your topic
                2: Talk to your reader
                3: Turn off your editor and brainstorm, develop your code words
                4: Rest and incubate
Step   III Organize Your Ideas
        Strategy 1: Build an issue tree — reveal your plan to the reader
                2: Nutshell your ideas and teach them
Step   IV Transform Writer-Based Prose into Reader-Based Prose
        Strategy 1: Develop a reader-based structure; this includes:
                    a) anticipate your reader's response
                    b) set up a shared goal
                    c) give your reader cues
                2: Develop a persuasive argument
Step   V Review Your Paper and Your Purpose
        Strategy 1: Match your paper against your goals and plans
                2: Simulate a reader's response
Step   VI Edit Your Writing for Effective Style
        Strategy: Edit for economy
        Strategy: Edit for a forceful style
Step   VII Edit for Connections and Coherence
        Strategy: Transform listike sentences
        Strategy: Reveal the inner logic of your paragraphs

In conclusion I would like to emphasize as much as I can that nothing can diminish my enthusiasm for PSSW. I have suggested a few rearrangements in the layout of the writing process, however, these changes are really very slight in view of the novelty and integrity of PSSW's approach. Noone so far has proposed such a well integrated and effective way to teach writing and therefore no critical remarks that can be raised in

reference to PSSW are able to significantly lower the immense value it offers for the profession. I hope that my presentation of PSSW has helped to convince some teachers and students of writing to use this handbook for acquiring powerful writing strategies.

REFERENCE

Fulkerton, R. 1979. "Four philosophies of composition". *College composition and communication Dec. 1979.* 345—348.

NEWS ABOUT MULTILINGUAL RESEARCH IN BELGIUM

Why does a community change its language within the course of a few generations? How do individuals switch their language use according to the social domain? What problems of conflict can arise when two languages come into contact? These are some of the questions the Research Centre on Multilingualism in Brussels is investigating in connection with research into linguistic minorities, linguistic boundary phenomena and other related aspects of sociolinguistics and contact linguistics.

The Centre consists of a dynamic and enterprising team of scholars involved in the coordination of different projects organised from its base in Belgium or with the cooperation of numerous researchers from abroad. These activities have the aim of an interdisciplinary approach to bi- and multilingual phenomena centred on the particularly fascinating area of contact linguistics, a field of study which, due to its complexity, is constantly receiving new momentum in the light of advancing research.

Cooperation with scholars on an international level takes on a number of different forms. Individual researchers come to work at the R. C. M. for a few weeks or months to carry out their own related work and to exchange ideas. Joint projects are conducted with other Institutes, for example, the "International Centre for Research on Bilingualism" in Quebec, the "Institut für deutsche Sprache" and the associated "Linguistic Workshops" in Mannheim (LAMA). The R. C. M. organises international conferences and seminars on multilingualism, among the former being the congresses "Contact and Conflict" I and II in 1979 and 1982, respectively, in which a total of nearly 200 speakers gave lectures. In 1982, a series of seminars was held in which speakers from around the world gave papers on differing aspects of their methodological approach to multilingualism.

In addition to research projects, the R. C. M. functions as a documentation centre. Articles, journals and publications are collected and lie at the disposal of national and international researchers investigating multilingual topics. The Centre has also produced a number of publications on contact linguistics, and has now launched its own series, "Plurilingua", in which the proceedings of the last international symposium, "Contact and Conflict II", have been published in the following volumes:

— *Current Trends in Contact Linguistics* (Vol. 1)
— *Theory, Methods and Models of Contact Linguistics* (Vol. 2)
— *Comparability of Languaga Contacts* (Vol. 3)
— *Multilingualism* (Vol. 4)

All four volumes are being published by Ferd. Dümmlers Verlag, Bonn. The first 3 volumes came out in January 1983 and the fourth volume in February 1983. Other publications include:

— P. H. Nelde, *Vernacular and Standard Language*. (Volkssprache und Kultursprache), publication in German only by Franz Steiner Verlag, Wiesbaden, 1979.
An empirical study on the situation of the German "low" variety and the French "high" variety in Eastern and South-eastern Belgium.
— P. H. Nelde, *German as a mother-tongue in Belgium*. (Deutsch als Muttersprache in Belgien), publication in German only by Steiner Verlag, Wiesbaden, 1979.
Sixteen scholars from home and abroad give theoretical and empirical observations on the situation of German in the Belgian German-speaking areas.
— P. H. Nelde, *Languages in Contact and Conflict*. Steiner Verlag, Wiesbaden, 1980. The complete list of 65 papers at the first international symposium "Contact and Conflict I".
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All volumes contain German and English contributions.

Those who are interested in R. C. M. activities and its publications are kindly requested to contact the office of the Centre: Anne Melis (admin. ass.), Richard Trim (Secr.) or Peter Nelde (head). We look forward to making your acquaintance. The Ufsal's Research Centre on Multilingualism is located at:

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