

Universidad Nacional de Trujillo

FACULTAD DE LETRAS Y EDUCACION



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LENGUAJE Y CIENCIAS



Publicación Trimestral del
Departamento de Idiomas y Lingüística

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Comité de Redacción:

Editor: Ernesto Zierer
Universidad Nacional de Trujillo
Depto. de Idiomas y Lingüística
Trujillo, Perú

Co-editor: Juan B. Vanriest
Universidad Nacional de Trujillo
Depto. de Idiomas y Lingüística

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K. Li
 A. Sánchez
 E. Zierer :

The Depth Situation in Japanese Syntax (II)*

1. Subordinate clauses

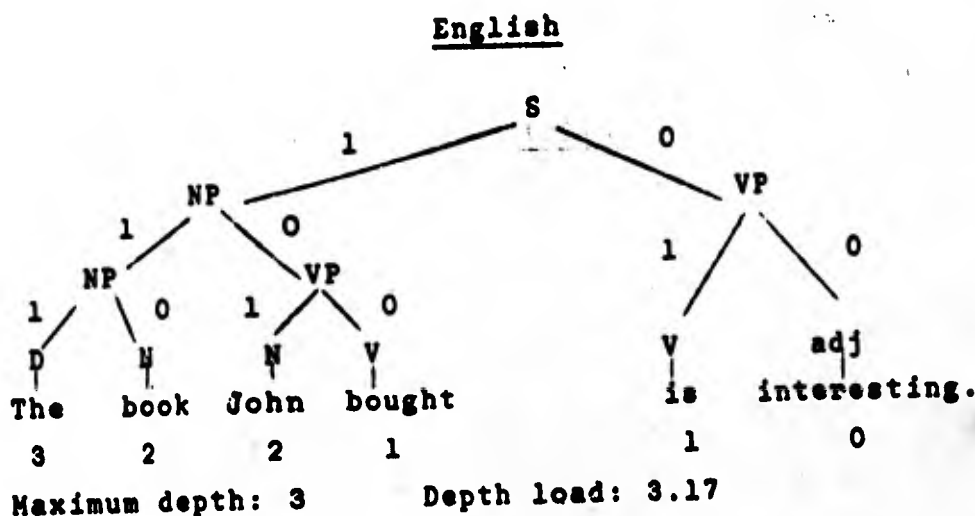
In Japanese the subordinate clause is usually placed before the main clause. This increases depth.

1.1 The relative clause

No relative pronouns are used in Japanese. The modifying relative clause is placed before the modified element:

a) nested clause: Example: "The book John bought is interesting."

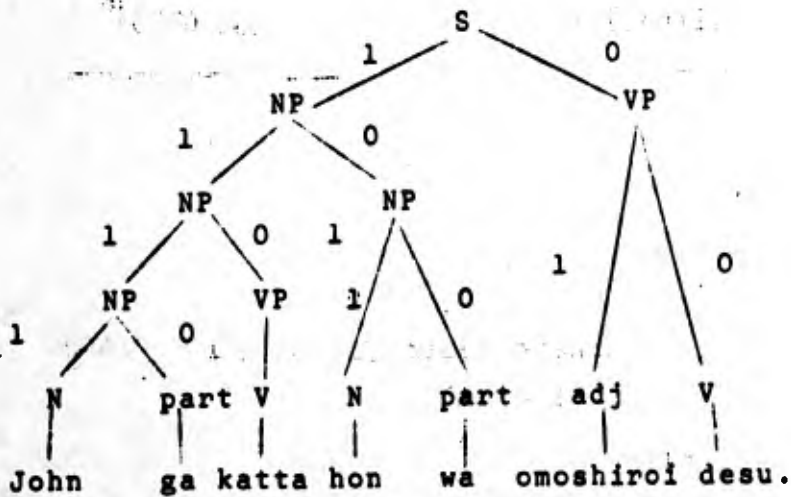
"John ga katta hon wa omoshiroi desu."



* This paper is part of a research sponsored by the Air Force Office of Scientific Research, Office of Aerospace Research, United States Air Force, under AFOSR Grant N°1089-66.
 Title of research: "A Comparative Study of Yngve's Depth Hypothesis"

VAD 659441

Japanese

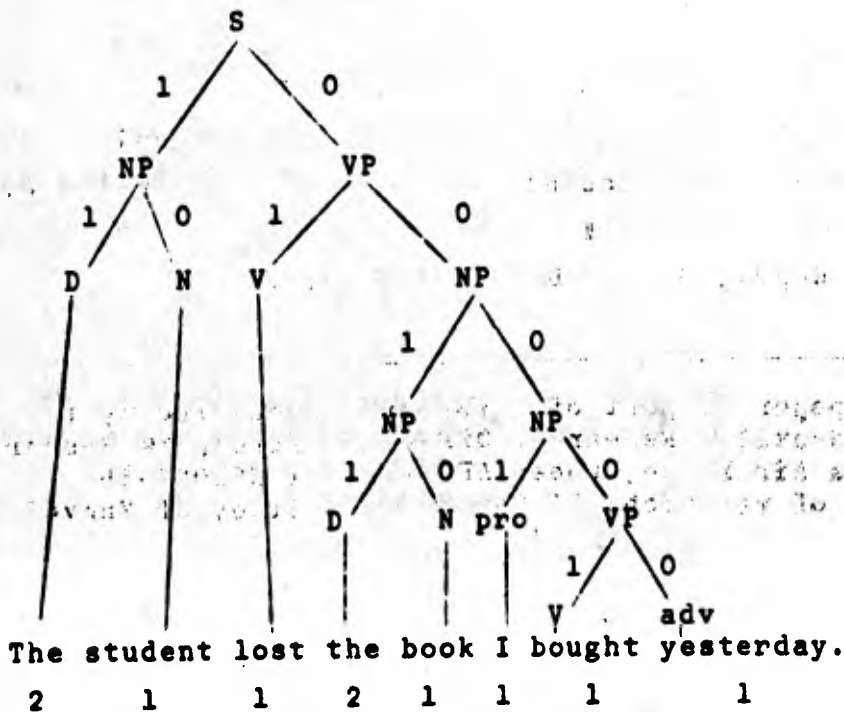


Maximum depth: 4 Depth load: 5

b) Postponed clause:

Example: "The student lost the book I bought yesterday."
 "Seito wa watashi ga kinoo katta hon wo nakushimashita."

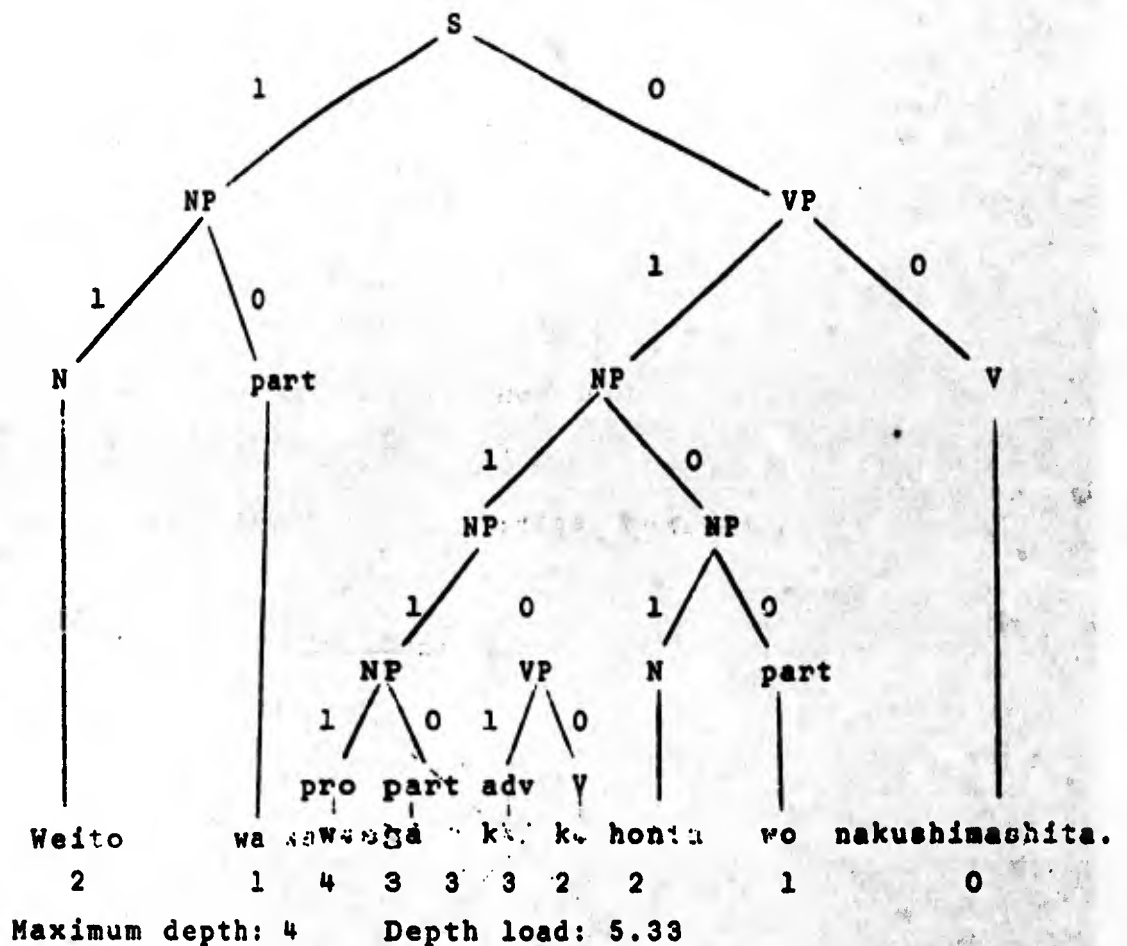
English



Maximum depth: 2

Depth load: 1.63

Japanese



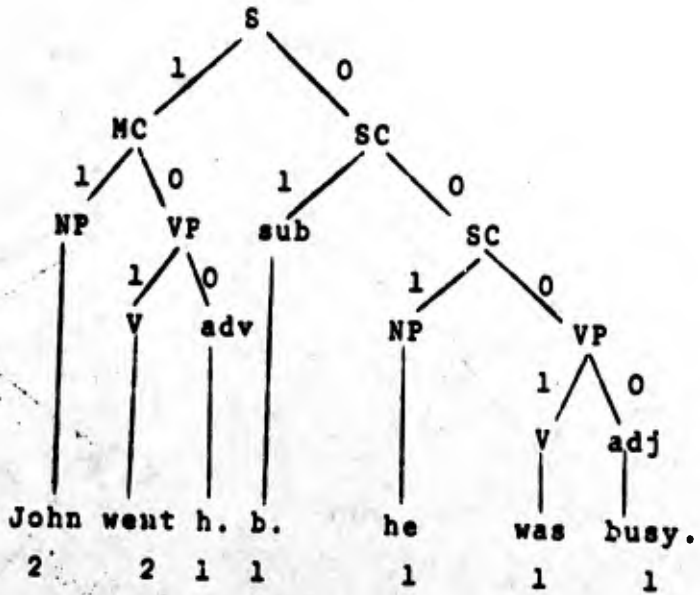
1.2 Subordinate clauses with subordinators

In Japanese the subordinator is placed after the subordinate clause; further, the subordinate clause is placed before the main clause. This increases depth.

Example: "John went home because he was busy."

"John wa isogashii deshita node uchi ni kaerimashita."

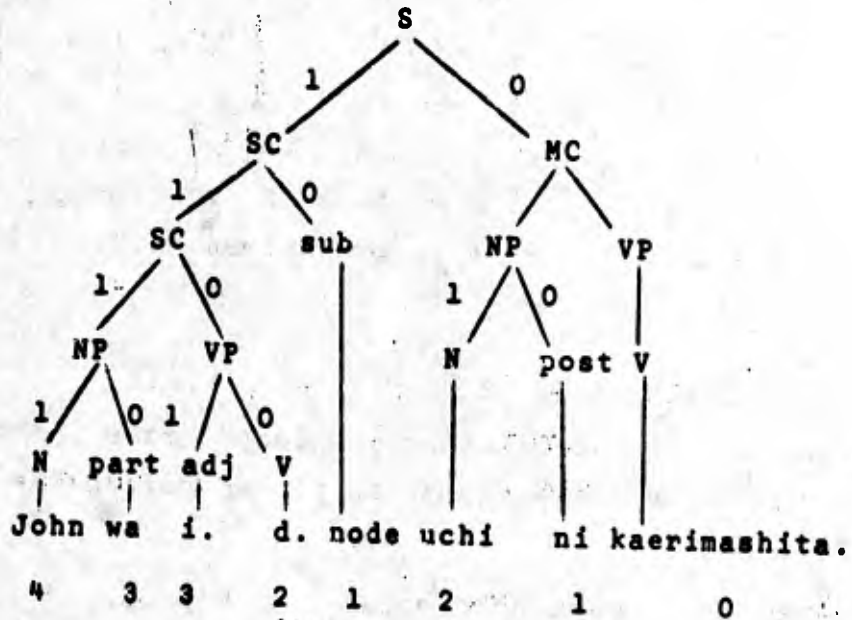
English



Maximum depth: 2

Depth load: 1.17

Japanese



Maximum depth: 4

Depth load: 5.50

2. Sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic aspects involved in syntactic depth

Languages do not reflect things and conditions as such but the way in which human beings look at them. Geographical, historical, and sociological factors have led to different speech communities with their specific features. These factors have determined the manner in which the members of a given speech community have converted the world into their intellectual and cultural property; and this process is reflected in their language. 5)

From a sociolinguistic angle languages can be grouped according to opposing criteria. 6) One important antinomy is that of individualistic versus collectivistic. 7) An excellent example of a predominantly collectivistic mentality is that of the Japanese people as opposed to the individualistic attitude in life typical of the European peoples. This collectivistic mentality of a more contemplative attitude of the Japanese people can also be traced in their language. Particularly, we can see it reflected in its syntax.

It is in line with a collectivistic attitude to mention the less important things first, thus preparing the hearer, and then to come forth with the more important information; in other words, that part of the sentence which has a greater surprise value is postponed towards the end, as if the speaker were hesitating to utter what he really wants to say. There are basically 4 devices that bring about this phenomenon:

- 1) postponing the acting part of the "comment", i.e. the verb to the end of the sentence or clause;
- 2) defining the situation of a noun by means of particles and correlators of time, space, etc. behind the noun;

- 3) placing the modifiers, particularly sentence modifiers such as relative clauses, before the element modified;
- 4) placing the subordinating conjunction behind the subordinate clause, and the subordinate clause before the main clause.

All these mechanisms, as we have already seen, are typical of Japanese and produce greater depth.

It may be objected that also in English and other European language certain elements when emphasized may be placed at the end of the sentence. However, when this is done intonation and stress usually play an important role. In Japanese intonation is a far less important device of semantic and syntactic functions.

On the other hand it should be noticed that the antinomy "collectivistic against individualistic" does, of course, not imply a complete absence of individualistic features in Japanese. The opposition expresses only that one tendency prevails over the other. Language, if it has to function as a mean of communication, is subject to a variety of restrictions - or universals - that cannot be eliminated by sociolinguistic factors.

The problem of greater depth should not only be looked upon from the standpoint of the limited capacity of the temporary memory in the human being. Equally important seems to be the type of construction causing greater depth from the learner's point of view. In an expression like "very clearly projected pictures followed"

the meaning is built up gradually from lower hierarchies to higher ones in a determination sequence from left to right.

In the Japanese sentence

"John ga honya de katta hon wa omoshiroi desu."

John part. book-in bought book part. interesting is
store

no such linear determination in one direction is operating in producing the sentence: The determination partly workstowards the left, partly towards the right. This means that the process of integrating substructures into a structural whole is not quite the same in both languages. This difference will be a special problem for the student of Japanese. Elements that come after determine what comes before. This phenomenon is different from what we have, e.g., in German, where the auxiliary verb signals that something is to^{be} expected towards the end of the sentence, though the meaning is not clear yet. In a Japanese subordinate clause the element signaling the subordination comes after the clause. The hearer will not be able to decode the first part of the utterance as a part of a larger sentence until he hears the intonation of the verb; and further, he will not be able to interpret it as a subordinate clause until he decodes the postponed (depth increasing) subordinator.

This tendency of backward-determination is much more pronounced in Japanese than in German. It is by no way characteristic of English.

A method aiming at teaching Japanese successfully to students whose native tongue is anIndoeuropean language should be designed in such a way as to get them used to the greater syntactic depth of Japanese. Here it should be noted that the decoding process, i.e. comprehension, has to be stressed considerably more than when learning a language of lesser depth, since the student as a speaker can keep syntactic depth within a certain limit and still bring across what he wants to say, while as a listener, not having been used to decoding messages presented to him in constructions of considerably greater syntactic depth, he will have difficulties in following and understanding a longer flow of speech.

The drills should be designed in such a form as to expose the student to a steadily increasing depth. They should be of the substitutional, transformational and other types suggested by modern techniques.

References (including 1st part of the article)
Lenguaje y Ciencias No. 24, 1967)

- 1) V.H. Yngve: "A Model and a Hypothesis for Language Structure" in PROCEEDINGS OF THE AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY, Vol. 104, N°5, October 1960

- 2) K. Li, A. Sánchez & E. Zierer: A Comparative Study of Yngve's Depth Hypothesis, Trujillo: Universidad Nacional, 1967
 - 3) Cf. V.H. Yngve: op. cit.
 - 4) Cf. E. Zierer: "Estructuras progresivas y estructuras regresivas" in LENGUAJE Y CIENCIAS No. 19, March 1966
 - 5) Cf. L. Weisgerber: Vom Weltbild der deutschen Sprache, Düsseldorf 1954
 - 6) Cf. F. Kainz: Psychologie der Sprache, Vol. V, 1, Stuttgart 1965, pp. 262-331
 - 7) Cf. F. Kainz: op. cit. pp. 320-329
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Alun L. W. Rees:

From Theory to Practice - Some Critical Observations on the
Organization and Assessment of Teaching Practice for Prospective
English Language Teachers

The student undergoing the five-year course for secondary-school teachers of English offered by the National University of Trujillo, approaches his fifth and graduation year with fifty-six hours of theoretical instruction in methodology behind him, supplemented by a grounding in linguistics (see publication N°22 for full details of syllabus). These are designed to lay the groundwork on which he can base the presentation of preliminary classes in the subject he has been specializing in during the previous four years. One of the important objectives of the final year of study is consequently to furnish the opportunity for him to apply this theoretical knowledge to the real situation of the classroom. This is implemented by the time-honoured practice class.

The Practice Class

Under the regulations laid down by the University, each trainee must supply satisfactory evidence of his promise as a teacher by conducting a minimum of fifteen, one-hour practice classes approved and supervised by appointed members of staff. This means in effect that persistent unsatisfactory work would bring about an initial extension of the customary period and lead to disqualification if no marked improvement were forthcoming.

Practice classes are carried out in local secondary schools with single-sex groups of from twenty-five to forty boys or girls. The levels vary from first to fifth grades which includes children between the ages of eleven and nineteen. The student teacher neither faces the

same class on each occasion nor necessarily visits the same school, so that he is obliged to continue each lesson from the point at which the regular teacher has left off.

Before the class the trainee hands the supervisor a lesson plan outlining the material to be covered and details of the procedures he intends to follow, together with a list of any aids he will employ. Throughout the succeeding class the supervisor makes his presence as unobtrusive as conditions will allow; he sits at the back of the room jotting down his observations, but refrains from interfering with the progress of the lesson in any way. After the hour, the tutor and student, together with one or perhaps two fellow-students who have been granted permission to sit in, withdraw to discuss the previous performance. This informal evaluation is conducted entirely in English and would reveal to an eavesdropper the close personal contact that has been developed between trainer and trainee. Care is taken to ensure that the student-teacher feels he is being considered and consulted rather than reprimanded in terms of what the supervisor might somewhat arbitrarily regard as right or wrong. In respect to this facet of his work the staff member would be more accurately described as a counsellor.

Reasons of courtesy would dictate that the regular teacher should be invited to attend the subsequent discussion. Unfortunately, in many cases an inability to speak English constitutes a serious drawback both as regards the possibility of active participation and a favourable disposition towards oral methods of instruction. Hence this is not included as a standard feature of the present programme, though the open invitation still stands.

A period of student self-appraisal begins the evaluation. This is evidence of the basic aim of not imposing an external, professional judgement upon the future teacher but to encourage him to develop his own criteria so that he can pinpoint any unpredicted shortcomings in his classes and suggest his own appropriate remedies. Only when the student has exhausted his ideas does the tutor forward any further suggestions and advice.

As one might expect, it has been found in practice that the student tends to be on the defensive at first and seizes the opportunity

to spout forth an indignant eulogy of self-vindication. The attitude of the tutor is therefore of great consequence at this stage, and an understanding approach is essential in preparing the way for more objective and profitable self-appraisals in the future.

Finally, the supervisor fills in the corresponding entry on the student's personal record-sheet by marking a grade ranging from 'satisfactory' to 'very good' and adds some general comments, either favourable or otherwise, on any outstanding features of the lesson. The entry is made and justified in the presence of the student, supplying further evidence of the effort made to divest the training procedure of any air of the esoteric or mystery of craft - that English language teaching is somehow achieved by miraculous 'methods' and 'techniques' jealously guarded by the initiated. This is particularly necessary in a country still in the grip of the traditional approach to language teaching and learning, and where oral methods and their advocates are looked upon with a mixture of awe and perhaps even fear, as one might regard the arrival in the neighbourhood of some outlandish sect and the disseminating of their bizarre creed.

The culmination of the term of teaching practice takes on the form of a class conducted before a jury of three, consisting of two tutors and the Head of Department. This involves night-school pupils on the University premises who have not necessarily been taught by the student-teacher on any previous occasion.

After the final bell the student and examiners retire to another room where the former, after first tendering his own comments, is questioned by the panel and induced to enlarge on topics occasioned by the class. The viva-voca examination is in essence a more formal version of the customary practice class 'post-mortem'.

Following this, the members of the examining board confer in private; they consult the student's record of studies over the previous five years and his progress throughout the teaching practice before considering his recent performance and ultimately casting their votes in a secret ballot. The result may be a pass or a failure either by the vote of the majority or by unanimous decision. All proceedings are carried on in English, and a University regulation stipulates that the public are to be freely admitted.

The successful and newly-trained teacher who assumes work in a secondary-school within the locality maintains an association with the University training programme. His co-operation may be sought in the provision of occasional practical class demonstration for current undergraduates. Furthermore, the Department staff and the facilities of a well-stocked library of works on linguistics and language teaching are always at his disposal for help and consultation. It frequently happens too, that a tutor is invited by a graduate teacher to visit one of his classes.

Improvements - Actual and Proposed

The five-year programme has been in operation for six and a half years, so that the second body of fully-trained teachers is due to complete the full course of study this term. We are therefore already in a position to embark upon preliminary examination of the present set-up, based on results so far obtained.

A characteristic of this Language Department is a constant pre-occupation with the efficacy of its schemes, the result being a flexible system stemming from an empirical approach of experiment with a corollary process of rejecting, reforming, modifying and enlarging. The outcome is consequently dictated by a sound policy of internal evolution as opposed to the rash though perhaps well-meaning imposition or adaptation of some external or purely theoretical system which would vainly strive to mould to its own precepts the unique conditions prevalent in a Peruvian university.

In recent months various innovations have been introduced to help increase the effectiveness of the training. Student-teachers now have the benefit of an audio-visual library. Apart from containing suitable reading texts, this also incorporates an array of aids including a portable tape-recorder and prepared tapes, a slide-projector, a flannel-graph and cut-outs, a folding blackboard, wall-charts, picture postcards, posters, coloured chalk, and clock faces, together with assorted bric-a-brac ranging from all sizes of bottles to pipe-cleaners and toy plastic crocodiles; Students are encouraged to add their own contributions besides borrowing from this collection. Eventually it is hoped

to set aside space for establishing a workshop where further aids can be produced cheaply by the teachers in training themselves.

The prime mover behind the institution of this new service was the growing need to implant a notion that simple, portable aids should not only be varied - the pupil soon tires of pens, pencils and rulers - but also as much part of classroom equipment as the versatile blackboard and chalk, and definitely not some kind of gimmickry to be resorted to in the presence of the supervisor. Also, merely mulling over a set of aids frequently engenders inspiration for the effective presentation of some new item to be taught.

In the course of the last term, selections from several practice classes were recorded on a portable tape-recorder. The development of each class was not, as one might suppose, recorded in its entirety to be replayed to the trainee with frequent breaks for criticism. Without being simultaneously supplemented by film, this would entail a tedious, fruitless and possibly discouraging procedure, fraught with long pauses and exaggerated hesitance, no more than but partially embracing the manifold aspects of successful instruction. Instead, extracts of model performances, particularly when they included polished chorus work which tends to be accentuated on tape, were filed for the orientation of future trainees or for bolstering the flagging spirits of the student occasionally abashed by the difficulties encountered when applying oral methods of language teaching for the first time in an unfamiliar classroom. The cryptic comment, "They laughed" is the usual complaint voiced by the discomfited student-teacher after what must appear to his startled pupils as an hour's cavorting around the classroom; Recordings of successful oral work go a long way in convincing him of the value of patience and persistence.

Experience has also revealed that recorded examples of recurring errors in pronunciation, intonation or structure which even the most competent student may fall into unawares when using his command of the language in the unaccustomed role of teacher, can often be eradicated by bringing them to the student's notice so convincingly.

Emphasis on a few important details, aided where feasible by faithful mechanical reproduction, appears to be much more stimulating and

conducive to improvement than the stifling and disparaging effects produced by a cluttered, comprehensive criticism. As a matter of assessment technique, a visiting Canadian Professor of Education - strongly under the influence of B.F. Skinner, one suspects - has even proposed that only successful aspects of the trainee's class should be brought up for reinforcement by the tutor's approval. Other, less favourable features would be ignored on the grounds of not serving to inculcate the desired behavioural responses. This thought-provoking, though by no means novel hypothesis, is at present undergoing limited trial pending further clarification concerning the precise details of its practical application to the task in hand.

A further move to consolidate the arrangement for teaching practice is evidenced by the current drawing-up of a standardized printed form in place of the previous rather inadequate lesson plan formulated by the student on a loose sheet of paper for the guidance of the supervisor. Questions on specific topics, graded step by step and demanding straightforward answers, will avoid the prevalent tendency to gloss over essential details with a repetition of vague generalizations and platitudes in which clichés such as, 'to establish correct language habits', 'training to listen and to understand', and the questionable, 'to teach the pupils to think in a foreign language' figure prominently. It is hoped that this new feature will elicit an explicit report, thereby inducing the student to organize the contents of his lessons in a more deliberate and systematic fashion, as well as furnishing a solid framework for post-class discussion, especially in highlighting any skilful deviations prompted by student responses or incidental occurrences in the classroom.

Up to now the trainee has been afforded no direct help by the tutor in preparing individual practice classes. This is consistent with the avowed aim of graduating teachers who are able to stand on their own feet. Unfortunately, this policy may have stultifying consequences when applied to the teacher who already stands at a disadvantage from the very fact that oral work obliges him to cope with a foreign tongue. Bearing this in mind it would perhaps be wiser for the tutor to play a large part in all aspects of the preparation of preliminary classes, gradually easing off as the student gains confidence.

A step in this direction is already contemplated by the compilation of a leaflet stating elementary techniques in classroom work which have proved themselves effective in past practice classes, in addition to those aspects tending to be consistently lacking in the initial stages - the appropriate use of gesture to accompany oral explanations, for example. This guide will provide practical and detailed advice which is beyond the scope of the essentially theoretical work involved in the previous lectures on methodology. It is also hoped to project the British Council series of twelve films under the general title of, 'View and Teach'.

Possible Modifications

So far the organization of the training programme has been described followed by sketches of actual improvements or those to be realized shortly. However, certain deficiencies still remain to be tackled. In the forefront of these is the continual chopping and changing of classes which creates a clearly unrealistic system deprived of the continuity demanded by any successful teaching/learning situation. The root cause for this is the rigid adherence to the official school syllabus which headmasters are loathe to relax for extended periods, particularly as oral work retards the apparent progress achieved by out-moded methods of translation and the memorization of paradigms. Until such prejudices can be overcome, a formidable and detrimental obstacle somewhat mars the programme.

From time to time objections are raised relating to the validity of the supervised class, despite its widespread currency, on the grounds that the behaviour of pupils is affected by consciousness of an alien presence. Others maintain that they instigate dynamic and ostentatious displays on the part of the student-teacher, far from typical of his teaching under normal circumstances.

Such criticisms are justifiable to some extent. At least one North American university has acknowledged them by the construction of '...a classroom with a concealed observation gallery equipped with a one-way glass stretching most of the length of one wall, the ends being completed by a screen wire which lets the sound come through'. However, frequent

class vigilation by the supervisor tends to resolve the former difficulty for, ipso facto, he is no longer regarded by the children as an alien^y presence. The latter problem, which often stems in large part from the student's reaction to his self-consciousness, can be dealt with without resorting to expensive measures simply by establishing the right kind of trainer/trainee relationship so that the practice class is viewed in its true light, not as a test, but as a unique opportunity for the undergraduate to have individual professional guidance. In this respect the Language Department of the University of Trujillo is fortunate in offering at present a graduate-year ratio of one tutor to four students.

A more severe criticism can be levelled against the final grading class and its public assessment by jury. As mitigating factors in seeking to uphold the present rigmarole, one may point out that the regulation demanding it was obviously formulated as a democratic means of countering any subsequent charges of unfair classification brought forward by the student who fails to graduate. Further vindication is provided by the fact that it undoubtedly constitutes a convenient though incidental platform from which to acclaim the progressive work of the Department. However, not only is one class insufficient to bear much weight in a final judgement, but also the fact that the student is thrust before an unfamiliar class and the public, renders the whole process meaningless as a valid ground for evaluation.

The institution of a secret ballot has its defects too in that it is so easily reduced to an affair in which the assessor casts his vote not strictly in accordance with his judgement of the candidate but in relation to the probable effects he supposes his personal vote will have on the corporate decision. For example, if examiner A decides that the candidate merits merely a pass by majority, and he expects examiners B and C to advocate a pass, then he may register a failure in the ballot box to counterbalance the others and thereby achieve the result he desires. Should either B or C by any chance not recommend a pass then the student would fail despite the fact that two assessors present considered that he deserved to pass.

Therefore, as is readily indicated, the final public performance is unreliable and out of keeping with the enlightened nature of the training programme in general.

As a postscript to this article it might be mentioned that when looking over the syllabi for many courses preparing teachers of English as a foreign/second language both in the Americas and Britain, one is often struck by Michael West's assertion (Teaching English under Difficult Circumstances) that, 'At present a rather ambitious course in phonetics, literature and the higher reaches of idiom and grammar is largely wasted on the teacher who goes back to work in the school where these things are not required'. Dr. West was not referring here to an extended university programme, nevertheless, this provokes the fundamental question as to whether or not in such schemes designed to train teachers there exists a glorification of the theoretical and intellectual at the expense of the practical and applied; whether or not in fact, this exposition should have been entitled, not 'From Theory to Practice' but, 'From Practice to Theory', or even just, 'Practice'.

One may of course maintain with another authority that, 'We grant an important place to linguistics in a curriculum intended to prepare effective teachers because we hope that the individual teacher will be able to control his textbook rather than to let it dominate him', or agree with R.A. Close (What Qualifications do we need for the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language? - English Language Teaching) that professional competence entails more than mere ability to speak English, combined with a knowledge a classroom techniques, and probably implies inherent factors that no amount of training could instil.

However, no matter how devious the route taken, competent training programmes all merge in their ultimate objective: that is to produce what Theodore Anderssen (Modern Language Journal - Oct.1963) defines as 'qualified' teachers as opposed to 'certified' ones who have merely served their time. This involves, above all, the fostering of such qualities as resourcefulness, self-reliance and individuality.

Edward W. Wolner:^x

Some Socio-linguistic Implications of English

Words in a Peruvian Newspaper

That one language influences another is commonplace fact. That increased technological skill in communication and transportation accelerate the rapidity and frequency of these changes should be equally apparent. In a period when everyone takes such increased skills for granted, however, the latter observation may too easily be lost sight of. More impregnably obscured in the daily bombardment of information we receive are the social consequences of the changes one language brings to another. This paper deals in an extremely limited manner with one way in which this process occurs. It is basically the study of the use of English words over a very short period of time in one Peruvian newspaper of national circulation. Further, it attempts to briefly point to the social changes the use of these words in print both reflect and effect. Finally, it tries to define the characteristic properties of the newspaper as a medium of communication. It does so in answer to the questions begged by assuming that the use of English words in one nationwide Peruvian newspaper both demonstrates and further helps to bring about social changes that are now operative in Peru. To do so is to understand the word "metaphor" and the concept of media as translators.¹

The word "metaphor" is from the Greek "meta" plus "pherin" and means to carry across or transport. As such, all media become metaphors because they are capable of translating experience into new forms. Thus the spoken word becomes one of the first media. Conceived in the technological language of the twentieth century, words become a system of information retrieval that covers the whole environment and experience at high speed. Words are complex systems

^x) Mr. Wolner is visiting lecturer in English at the University of Trujillo(National) under the U. S. Peace Corps Programme.

¹ The following discussion owes much to Marshall McLuhan, Understanding Media, New American Library(New York, 1964).

of metaphors and symbols that translate and transport our experience to our senses. This translation of sense experience into vocal symbols evokes and retrieves in an instant what we know of the world.

As sense experience is translated into vocal symbols so are vocal symbols translated into written ones. As soon as written symbolization of sense experience can be transported beyond the physical environment and experience of any one man the information explosion erupts and another transforming, translating process begins. We ourselves become translated into the information that we receive. Christ described in St. John as the "Word made Flesh" is perhaps one of the most perfect expressions of what we mean when we say we become information. We become information because each form or medium of communication not only carries, but translates and transforms, the sender, the receiver, and the message. In doing so, the medium alters patterns of interdependence among people.

If the above is viable, then communication media become extensions of ourselves to increase power and speed. With power we are not directly concerned in this paper. With speed and its consequences for the social order we are. An increase in speed in any kind of grouping of any components is itself a disruption that causes a change of organization. In terms of the newspaper, the alteration of social groupings and the formation of new communities, occur with the increased speed of information movement by means of the paper message in combination with technological advances in transportation (car, truck, train, plane).

Lack of homogeneity in speed of information movement creates diversity of patterns in organization. It is quite predictable, then, that any new means of moving information will alter social structure. So long as the new means is every where available at the same time, there is a possibility that the structure may be changed without breakdown. Where there are great discrepancies in speeds of movement, as between air and road travel or between telephone and typewriter, serious conflicts can occur. The metropolis of the twentieth century and the distinction between developed and underdeveloped countries are test cases for such discrepancies.

This is not to say that media and the varying speed with which they move information are the primary causes of the disruption and disorganization represented by the phenomena of the city and underdeveloped countries. Rather, it is minimally to say that the varying speed with which the different media move information are some of the elements in the set that represents the sum total of the causes that result in the disorientation present in the above-mentioned examples.

With this conceptual background the charts below, recording a very limited number of English words used in the Peruvian newspaper, El Comercio, can literally be read as a hieroglyph of some Peruvian social conditions. All the words that appear in the charts were randomly selected under the following criterion: that all of them retain their English spellings as much as possible. The words were taken from editions of El Comercio appearing during the period August 16, 1967-September 27, 1967. Their significance, however limited, in terms of social conditions in Peru is explained below.

CHART I			
El Comercio Numero 70,197 Lima, Miercoles El 16 de Agosto de 1967			
Page Number	Title of Article	Word	Orthographic change from English to Spanish
2	"Cartas a <u>El Comercio</u> "	"un trailers"	Spanish: un trailers English: trailer truck
10	Caption on photograph	"un cocktail" (Type of party)	none
13	Advertisements	"closet" (little store room)	none
		"garage"	none
		"living-comedor"	Spanish: living-comedor Eng: living-dining room
		"hall"	none
		"super-market"	none
14	Advertisement	"stock de mercaderia"	none (stock-market)

CHART II			
El Comercio		Numero 70,229	Lima, Domingo 3 de Setiembre de 1967
Page Number	Title of Article	Word	Orthographic Change from English to Spanish
1,4	Pescadores Piden al Gobierno que Oblige a acabar "Lock-out"	"Lock-out"	none
4	Advertisement	"stock de medidas"	none
5	Advertisement	"overall" (boy's play pants)	none
		"polo" (type of undershirt)	none
		"jersey" (type of girl's shirt)	none
		"hits" (popular records)	none
		"a-go-go" (dance style)	none
16	Advertisement	"Juego de Living"	none (living room furniture)
		"box-spring"	none (type of mattress)
		"divan"	none (Type of bed-sofa)
		"consola"	Spanish: consola (radio, t.v.) English: console (in 1 piece of furniture)
15	Advertisement	"sweater"	none (chompa)
		"ropa sport"	none (sports wear)
		"camisa sport"	none (sport shirt)
		"carro compacto"	(compact car--literal translation)
28	Advertisement	"by-pass"	none (highway running by city)
		"car-port"	none (garage with roof but no sides or walls)
		"pent-house"	none (luxury suite in hotel)

CHART III			
El Comercio		Numero 70,234	Lima, Miercoles 6 de Setiembre de 1967
Page Number	Title of Article	Word	Orthographic Change from English to Spanish
3	"Braniff Mostró Ayer Super-Jet DC-8"	"Super-Jet"	none
23	"Concierto de Jazz Ofrece...."	"Jazz"	none

CHART IV			
El Comercio Numero 70,238 Lima, Viernes 8 de Setiembre de 1967			
Page Number	Title of Article	Word	Orthographic Change from English to Spanish
6	Advertisement	"jumper"	none(type of blouse)
		"pullover"	none(type of sweater)
10	Advertisement	"car-wash"	none(automatic cleaning of (car))
22	Movie page	"Listin Cinematografico"	Spanish: Listin English: Listing(of movies)

The point in all these charts is the following: all the English words shown indicate, in however provisional or small a degree, the adoption of a new life-style in some places in Peru; and that this is most probably happening in the suburbs or "urbanizaciones" of the larger cities. This conclusion is based upon the fact that most of the words shown in the above charts deal with new modes of dress and with what would be new variations in Peruvian house construction and furnishing. That all this is happening in the suburbs of large cities in Peru is indicated by the addresses given in the advertisements. These conclusions are further corroborated by the appearance of these words(those dealing with clothing and housing) almost daily in El Comercio during the period August 16, 1967 through September 27, 1967.

The fact that these words retain most if not all their English spelling indicates that any shift towards the new life-style implied by the words is relatively recent in Peru and is probably being imported from the United States, where all the words are very commonly and frequently used.

Summarily, these words printed in a Peruvian newspaper testify minimally to the existence of a new life-style in the suburbs, and to the faith at least some people have in the newspaper as a medium of communication that can further effect the adoption of the new style of living.

Lee Kisang:

Componential Analysis of Korean Kinship Words

To analyze the referential meaning of related words, Eugene A. Nida¹ has employed three kinds of structures: (1) chain, (2) hierarchies, and (3) components. Since in this article it is intended to analyze the components of Korean kinship words, the reference to chains and hierarchies will be made briefly to facilitate the reader's understanding.

Chain Structure Various words have meaning only in the relation to preceding and succeeding words. Numerical words, for example, three, seven and so on,^{do} not mean anything if the preceding and succeeding words do not exist. Meanings of color terms, names of days of the week and months, etc. are typical chain structure of related meanings. The analysis of this structure is quite important in understanding the relationship existing in certain semantic structures.

Hierarchical Structure In contrast with chains or strings of terms which describe merely linear relationships, the hierarchical structure of words is analyzed in horizontal and vertical structures. The meaning of plant, for example, is related to tree, grass, vegetable, etc., and the word grass is related to herb, weed, pasture and so on; thus the word weed sometimes means tobacco. That is to say, plant is a superordinate word to tree, grass and weed; and tobacco is a subordinate word to weed, grass, and plant. In analyzing this structure, some hierarchical words are specific and some overlap. That is to say, some words may be diagrammed in the form of a pyramid, while some words may not. A general feature of hierarchical structure is that the superior - - dinate terms become fewer and the semantic domains larger. The hierarchical structuring of related symbols is an extremely important index to man's world view, for it is by language that people classify their experience.

Componential Structure Some related series of words have specific features that may be shared and contrasted. Words of kin-

ship structure, sets of case endings, pronominal series, etc. belong to componential structure. To analyze these words the terms must be well-defined and the terms must possess features which are determinate as to basic contrasts between the words in question. For example, father and mother in English share a component of generation order from ego (the person central to the kinship structure in question), but they differ as to sex. The two components of generation and sex help us therefore, to define the relationship of ego to father and mother. But the components of these words in the Korean language in addition to generation and sex, distinguish the speaker, in other words, by whom the distinction is made, and to whom they are referred. For example, general expressions of father and mother in the Korean language are 'buchin' and 'mochin' respectively when ego mentions other people's father and mother. But when ego refers to his own father and mother when speaking to other people he uses the word 'abuoji' and 'uomouni' respectively. More specific usage in each term of kinship is illustrated in the following paragraph.

Analysis

1. For the purpose of analysis, the following set of Korean words are selected as having multi-dimensional relationships consisting of certain shared and contrasting feature, and a precise definition of terms. For example, 'grandfather' is father's father (FaFa) - or Mother's father (MoFa). For the sake of convenience, abbreviations are used: 'Fa' for father, 'Mo' for mother, 'Br' for brother, 'Si' for sister, 'So' for son, 'Da' for daughter, 'Eld' for elder, 'Yg' for younger, etc.

ENGLISH

KOREAN

Grandfather

Halabuoji

FaFa

Keonhalabuoji

FaFa-Eld-Br

Oehalabuoji

MoFa

Keonoehalabuoji

MoFa-Eld-Br

Jakeunoehalabuoji

MoFa-Yg-Br

Grandfather

Halmuoni

FaMo

Keonhalmuoni

FaFa-EldBrWife

Jakeunhalmuoni

FaFa-YgBrWife

Oehalmuoni

MoMo

Keonoehalmuoni

MoFaEldBr Wife

Jakeunoehalmuoni

MoFaYgBrWife

Father

Abuoji

Fa

Mother

Uomuoni

Mo

Brother

Hyung

EldBr

Donsaeng

YgBr

YgSi

Sister

Nui

EldSi

Son

Adeul

So

Daughter

Ttal

Da

Grandson

Sonja

SoSo, BrSoSo, etc.

Oesonja

DaSo

Granddaughter

Sonnyuo

SoDa, BrSoDa, etc.

OeSonnyuo

DaDa

Uncle

Keunabuoji

FaEldBr

Jakeunabuoji

FaYgBr

Oeajeosshi

MoBr

Komobu

FaSiHus

	Ajeutshi	FaFaBrSo, FaMoBrSo, MoFaBrSo, MoFaSiSo, etc.
Aunt	Keunuomuoni	FaEldBrWif
	Jakeunuomuoni	FaYgBrWif
	Oeajumuoni	MoBrWif
	Komo	FaSi
	Imo etc.	MoSi
Cousin	Sachon	FaBrSo, FaBrDa
	Oejongsachon	MoBrSo, MoBrDa
	Ijongsachon	FaSiSo, FaSiDa
Nephew	Jokha	BrSo, BrDa SiSo, SiDa etc.
Niece		

The distinctive features of components which define the various contrasts in meanings are identified, e.g. differences of generation, sex, lineality, seniority etc.

a. Sex (s). In English, sex distinctions exist in all terms but cousin, but in Korean, ^{Yg}sister, cousin, and nephew or niece do not distinguish the sex. A component of sex may then serve to divide all the other terms into two classes, male (Sm) and female (Sf) except the kinship words mentioned above.

b. Generation (G). Generation distinguishes the words, e.g. two generations above ego are grandfather (SmG1) and Grandmother (SfG1) in English. One generation above ego are father (SmG2) ego's own generation is Generation three (G3), one generation below ego is Generation four (G4) and two generations below is Generation five (G5). Here, it is noted that in English, FaFaBr and FaBr are referred to as 'uncle' but in Korean the component of generation is observed very strictly.

c. Lineality (L). Lineality also identifies the distinctive features; direct ancestors or descendants of ego (L1), brothers and sisters, uncle or aunt, or nephew and niece are colineal(L2) and cousins are ablineals (L3), representing two successive degrees of less direct lineage. In English, all ablineals are called cousins, but in Korean, seniority plays a large role in deciding the names of one's relatives.

d. Seniority (E). In English, seniority in the same generation does not make distinctions but in Korean it does; 'uncle', for example, elder brother of one's father is called Keunabuoji and the younger brother of one's father is called Jakeunabuoji. Brother is Hyung when he is elder (E1) and Dongsang when is younger (E2) etc.

e. Maternal Lineage (M). 'Grandfather' in English is defined FaFa or MoFa, but in Korean, FaFa is called 'halabuoji' while MoFa is called Oehalabuoji, thus distinguishing the paternal lineage from maternal lineage.

2. Now each term is defined by means of the specific components. For example, father may be defined as first ascending generation, male, and lineal: and elder brother (hyung) is defined as the same generation, male, colineal and elder. Based on these componential features, we obtain the following type of description:

Grandfather	Halabuoji	Sm G1 L1
	Keonhalabuoji	Sm G1 L2 E1
	Jakeunhalabuoji	Sm G1 L2 E2
	Oehalabuoji	Sm G1 L1 M
	Keonoealabuoji	Sm G1 L2 M E1
	Jakeunoealabuji	Sm G1 L2 M E2
Grandmother	Halmuoni	Sf G1 L1
	Keohalmuoni	Sf G1 L2 E1
	Jakeuhalmuoni	Sf G1 L2 E2
	Oehalmuoni	Sf G1 L1 M
	Keonhalmuoni	Sf G1 L2 M E1

Father	Abuoji	Sm G2 L1
Mother	Uomouni	Sf G2 L1
Brother	Hyung	Sm G3 L2 E1
	Donsaeng	Smf G3 L2 E2
Sister	Nui	Sf G3 L2 E1
Son	Adeul	Sm G4 L1
Daughter	Ttal	Sf G4 L1
Grandson	Sonja	Sm G5 L1-3
	Oesonja	Sm G5 L1-3 M
Granddaughter	Sonnuyo	Sf G5 L1-3
	Oesonnyo	Sf G5 L1-3 M
Uncle	Keunabuoji	Sm G2 L2 E1
	Jakeunabuoji	Sm G2 L2 E2
	Oeajeussi	Sm G2 L2 M
	Komobu	Sm G2 L2 P
Aunt	Keunuomuoni	Sf G2 L2 E1
	Jakeunuomouni	Sf G2 L2 E2
	Oeajumuoni	Sf G2 L2 M
	Komo	Sf G2 L2 P
Nephew and Niece	Jokha	SmfG4 L2-3 E1-2 M P
Cousin	Sachon	Smf G3 L3 E1-2
	Oesachon	Smf G3 L3 M E1-2 M
	Kojong	Smf G3 L3 P E1-2 P

It is interesting to note that in the Korean language, descending family relationships are relatively liberal whereas ascending ones are very specific.

These various componential features are plotted to show the occurrences or non-occurrences of their interrelationship in the following table.

Interrelationship of Componential Features

Components Relationship		Generations					Sex		Lineality			Seniority		Mater. Peter.	
		G1	G2	G3	G4	G5	Sm	Sf	L1	L2	L3	F1	F2	M	P
Grandfa.	Halabuoji	X					X		X						
	Keonhalbuoji	X					X			X		X			
	Jakeunhalabuoji	X					X			X			X		
	Oehalabuoji	X					X		X					X	
	Keunochalabuoji	X					X			X		X		X	
	Jakeunochalabuoji	X					X			X			X	X	
Grandmo.	Halmuoni	X						X	X						
	Keonhalmuoni	X						X		X		X			
	Jakeunhalmuoni	X						X		X			X		
	Oehalmuoni	X						X	X					X	
	Keunochalmuoni	X						X		X		X		X	
	Jakeunochalmuoni	X						X		X			X	X	
Father	Abuoji		X				X		X						
Mother	Uomuoni		X					X	X						
Brother	Hyung			X			X			X		X			
	Donsaeng			X			X	X		X			X		
Sister	Nui			X				X		X		X			
Son	Adcul				X		X		X						
Daughter	Ttal				X			X	X						
Grandso.	Sonja					X	X		X						
	Oesonja					X	X		X					X	
Grandda.	Sonnyuo					X		X	X						
	Oesonnyuo					X		X	X					X	
Uncle	Kounabuoji		X				X			X		X			
	Jakeunabuoji		X				X			X			X		
	Oeajcosshi		X				X			X				X	
	Komobu		X				X			X					X
Aunt	Keumuomuoni		X					X		X		X			
	Jakeumuomuoni		X					X		X			X		
	Oeajumoni		X					X		X				X	
	Komo		X					X		X					X

Relationship	Components	Generation					Sex		Lineality			Seniority		Mater. Patern.		
		G1	G2	G3	G4	G5	Sm	Sf	L1	L2	L3	E1	E2	M	P	
Nephew & Niece	Jikha				X		X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Cousin	Sachon			X			X	X			X	X	X			
	Oesachon			X			X	X			X	X	X	X		
	Kojong			X			X	X			X	X	X			X

Foot-note:

1. Eugene A. Nida, "Toward a Science of Translating", Leiden, E. J. Brill, 1964