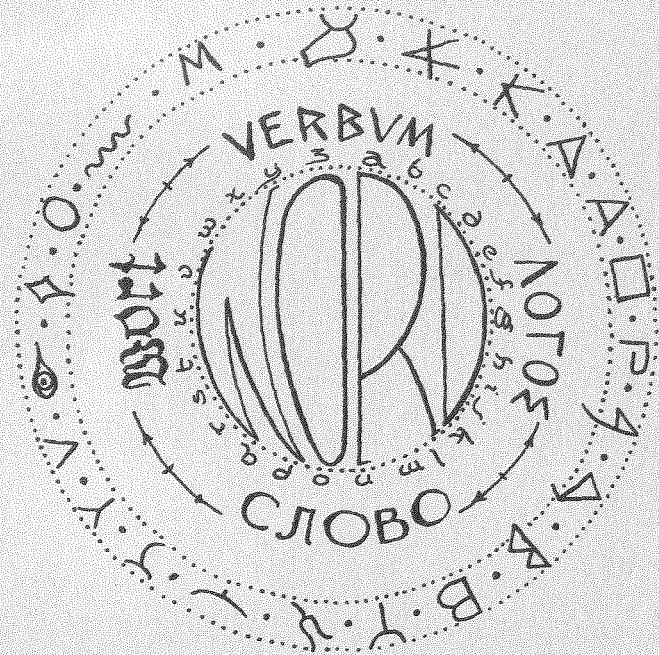


Proceedings
of

THE LINGUISTIC CIRCLE OF



MANITOBA AND NORTH DAKOTA

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PROCEEDINGS
of the
LINGUISTIC CIRCLE
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Manitoba and North Dakota

Vol. 1 No. 1

OFFICERS, 1959:

President: Demetrius J. Georgacas, University of North Dakota.
Vice-President: G. P. Goold, University of Manitoba.
Secretary-Treasurer: Norman B. Levin, University of North Dakota.

WINNIPEG, MAY 1959

EDITORIAL NOTE

Following the organizational meeting in Winnipeg of the Linguistic Circle of Manitoba and North Dakota on March 30, 1959, the first regular meeting was held in Grand Forks in the afternoon and evening of Friday, May 15, and the morning of Saturday, May 16.

Papers had been invited from a wide range of interested people, both faculty and students, as it was thought desirable to include as many disciplines and points of view as possible. They were fairly short in consequence, some representing unfinished research which may be published elsewhere at a later date. The topics varied considerably, including reports of research, discussions of technical problems of linguistic study, and consideration of the importance of linguistics to other academic fields.

We present here abstracts of most of the papers read. We regret, however, that not all of the papers given at the meetings were obtainable at the time of publication. It is hoped that future issues of the Proceedings will contain full sets of abstracts.

We take this opportunity of thanking the University of Manitoba for its generosity in making available to us the facilities of its Multilith Department.

R. MacG. Dawson,
University of Manitoba

PRESIDENTIAL ADDRESS

Professor Demetrius J. Georgacas, U. N. D.

There are no intellectual deserts anywhere unless those living in a given area are responsible for the existence of such a desert. In our space age the importance of the study of languages has been emphasized by responsible educators and statesmen, and the teaching of languages has therefore entered a different frame and assumed an accelerated pace. In order to keep up with advancing educational ideals, the study of languages must become a very serious matter for our schools at all levels. Linguistics, as the discipline dealing with all problems of language, both theoretical and practical, is the central point of interest.

Manitobans, North Dakotans, and others have found that close cooperation in linguistic studies, in the study of the problems of language learning, language teaching, and translation, and of the problems of languages in all schools is not only desirable but indeed essential under the present circumstances. Our enterprise is not too bold but, rather, moderate; yet it will be persistent. The reason is that the campuses of the universities in our area contain many resourceful faculty members who are willing to work in some capacity toward the goals of this group. Today's programme may perhaps testify to this fact.

We all know that there is no substitute for hard work, and that initiative is the privilege of every individual and every group. In the specific endeavour to improve and accelerate language learning, responsible faculty may create the climate necessary for the great change from the inadequate approach of a smattering of language learning to the real approach of language study. Enlightened school administrations are in general ready to assume their parts when the teachers help to create such a climate. Then we may achieve the following desiderata:

1. efficient language teaching,
2. true language learning, as the result of fruitful response on the part of the students, and
3. practical and theoretical studies in language, i. e., linguistic research.

As I understand it, to this Linguistic Circle, language teaching, language learning, and linguistic research are parts of an over-all programme which should not be dismembered. It is intolerable to any responsible school or organization that some colleges should produce language teachers, that other colleges should just teach a few modern languages (perhaps no more than three), or that only the major institutions should keep for themselves the pri-

vilege and the duty of linguistic research. Consistent with this ideal, the Linguistic Circle is a serious group, has a clear programme, and will strive towards the realization of that programme, which is included in its brief constitution.

Every language teacher needs to learn more, thus renewing his reservoir of resources and his knowledge of the language, literature and culture of a people, of the work being done on these, and of methods of teaching. Every language teacher has a duty to enrich the meaning and content of his function as a language teacher. All are aware of the need for an organization like the Linguistic Circle, except those few who have not yet grasped the great change in language study which American education is undergoing at this very time.

We invite, therefore, all persons interested in languages to the membership of the Linguistic Circle: faculty, students, and secondary school language teachers. The Linguistic Circle will not waver in its cardinal objectives or standards, which remain scholarly.

We hope that Minnesotans will join forces with us to make it the Linguistic Circle of Manitoba, Minnesota, and North Dakota. Several colleagues from the Twin Cities have expressed interest in attending future meetings, and I feel we can count on their cooperation.

I take this opportunity of expressing my sincere thanks to all those who so admirably assisted in making the programme of this first scholarly meeting possible. It is hoped that future meetings will be enriched by the contributions of specialists in some field from other parts of North America: as to cost, we are sure that with the increase in our membership we will meet with the generosity of understanding Maecenates in this area.

When we attended our organizational meeting at Winnipeg on March 30, we had the privilege of being received by President Saunderson and Dean Waines, with whom we briefly discussed our goals. It was apparent from these discussions that our views and objectives were coincident with theirs.

We are happy today, ladies and gentlemen, that President Starcher has been so generous with his time as to receive our guests from Winnipeg and to come here to address this group. On behalf of the group and personally, I express our gratitude to President Starcher, for the eloquent support his presence lends to our efforts. We are grateful for the moral support we have received from both our universities.

GREETINGS AND WELCOME TO THE LINGUISTIC CIRCLE

Dean Christopher J. Hamre, U. N. D.

Information that the Linguistic Circle had been organized and was about to hold its first meetings came as a surprise to me. Surprises, as we all know, differ in quality and significance. Also, our reactions to surprises differ. This particular surprise to me was a pleasant one, so pleasant that when Dr. Georgacas invited me to extend greetings to the Linguistic Circle, I accepted without repeated urgings to do so.

When the program for this dinner reached my desk, I was thrown into a mild panic. The word "address", when it is connected with my name, always frightens me -- frightens me so severely that I become almost helpless as far as ideas are concerned. I confess I called on Dr. Georgacas in his office to discuss the problem of the address. On mere introduction of the subject, Dr. Georgacas commented that the schedule for the dinner would allow me five minutes or possibly ten minutes for the address. That terminated the discussion because I thought I could manage five minutes on some subject related to the field of languages and linguistics -- that I could manage a short address.

Though no longer exactly frightened, I continued to be uneasy with the assignment, even though it was to be a short address. What might I, an anatomist, find to say about linguistics? I speak only one language, possibly because my situation at no time has demanded otherwise. I can "eavesdrop", quite effectively I may note, on one or two more languages. In that I am something like a friend of my student days who when asked how many credits he was carrying, replied that he was carrying one and dragging fourteen. No great accomplishment, but at least I have been exposed to languages and, to carry the comparison to my friend of student days, might even pass the course.

Even though it may not be the most appropriate time to mention one particular problem I encounter in my efforts to train scientists it is such a frustrating problem that I will mention it, appropriate or not. We have all heard the statement made, usually with the ring of real conviction and authority on the part of those who made it, that all important works written in foreign languages are available in translation. That statement is completely false. Limiting my observations to the field of anatomy, no one can become a competent anatomist without being able to read the books and monographs published in Germany, France, Holland and the Scandinavian countries. I am, therefore, intensely interested in a personal way in any event, any new emphasis, any new organization which might by chance bring language-oriented students to my field.

So much for my narrow personal reasons for wanting to see language studies and language departments prosper and flourish.

Recently I acquired new duties with quite broad responsibilities and these responsibilities have made it necessary for me to think about academic fields other than my own. When I learned that the Linguistic Circle had been organized it occurred to me that this might be "what the doctor ordered" for our language work and language department.

If I appear to be somewhat provincial in a few observations I wish to make, I hope our visitors will forgive me. I believe that every educator or academic man, though he may not realize it, plays two roles, that of a teacher and that of a scholar. As teachers we are dependent on students. We spend much of our time with adolescent persons, adolescent minds. We try to bring knowledge of subject matter to our students and hope that some of our students may acquire some degree of maturity in our subject matter field. Our language departments must realize those hopes quite infrequently because they are from the views of many, merely service departments. The greater number of their students take the minimum amount of work required by some other field. That should not be the case. The service course stigma is a difficult one to overcome and a handicap I am happy does not apply to my own field.

For a scholar, the prestige of scholarship is to a great extent independent of students but dependent on the scholar's equals. The scholar must perform for experts and it is the opportunity to do so which has been lacking in our particular academic environment. It is this opportunity the Linguistic Circle can bring to our environment. Because I know how important it is to me to spend two or three days at the meetings of the American Association of Anatomists, I believe this must be true for the Linguistic Circle and the faculty of our language departments. I know from experience and observation what it means to students to know there are areas of the subject that lie beyond the boundaries of the book they study. That knowledge may for some students be a challenge and a stimulus to scholarship in the field. Students appear to have more respect for us when they know we have presented papers at scientific meetings. These things I hope the Linguistic Circle will do for you.

I wish to congratulate those individuals who thought of organizing the Linguistic Circle. May it provide for our staff the opportunity to develop as scholars. May it also bring capable students into the language and linguistic disciplines. It is my sincere hope that it will grow, prosper, expand its influence, and serve our academic communities successfully.

ASPECT IN THE FRENCH VERB

D. A. Mitchell, Lecturer, Dept. of French, U. of M.

The problem of aspect is not one which is generally considered to be of much importance in the conjugation of the French verb, and it is one which receives at best a cursory glance from French grammarians. Its study, however, reveals divergences from sense in the form of French, and throws into relief a problem of translation.

Aspect in French must be defined, since French grammarians do not agree here.* We may define aspect as that characteristic of a verb form which expresses the durative, inceptive, progressive, perfective and imperfective quality of the action. It expresses temporal refinements of which mere gross tense is incapable. It is the fine adjustment of tense. An example of difference in aspect may be furnished in our four English present "tenses". We have the "simple present tense", -- which is not simple, present, or even indeed a tense, -- the "present progressive", the "present emphatic", the "present perfect progressive". These are all modifications of one tense or time (viz. the present) and would be better considered aspects of the English present tense.

When we consider the English "simple present tense", we find it may be used in several different ways, none of which really refers to the present. We might distinguish certain of these uses. The first is that which suggests a newspaper photograph caption or leader. It belongs to a realm of Proustian timelessness (e. g. "Queen Victoria opens the Forth Bridge") and for that reason it might be called the "anytime pictorial" use. Another use is to indicate loosely an action to take place in the future, or supposed to be going to take place in the future (e. g. Queen Elizabeth opens the Seaway some time this summer). This might be called the "future suppositious" use, and is again not present. The most frequent use of this tense is what we might call the "all-time habitual". When, for example, I say "I speak English" I refer to an habitual action without reference to time at all. We may say that the English "simple present tense" is not simple, that it cannot be used to refer to the present specifically, and that its vagueness in reference to time really denies it the right of being called a tense. Its present functions in affirmations have been abdicated in favour of the "present progressive" (our only true present tense), and in the interrogative by the "present emphatic". It is a flourishing aspect of the verb, but it is a moribund tense.

* M. Grevisse: Le bon usage, p. 532 sec. 607bis.

In French then what does je donne mean? It is not equivalent to "I give", "I am giving", "I do give" or even (with depuis) to "I have been giving." When a Frenchman says: "vous parlez français", can his mind stop short of deciding whether he means: "you are speaking French now" or "you do speak French all the time?" Does his thinking depend entirely on the adverb for clarification of the aspect? Can he suspend judgment, as the Englishman cannot when you say to him "You speak?" (For "you speak" must be either future suppositious or all-time habitual). If the Frenchman's mind stops short of this decision, then it is possible to say that, unless the French verb is modified by an adverbial expression, it is impossible to translate it into English. Another distinction which exists between the French and the English verb here is that the French is inceptive. The Frenchman saying "je porte", like a Roman saying fero, is at liberty to visualize the beginning of the action. An Englishman may not visualize the beginning of the action when he hears: "I am carrying." All Latin verbs were fundamentally inceptive, and it was this quality which caused the gradual disappearance of the Latin inceptives in "esco." The form of these "inchoate" verbs survived in the double s of the finir conjugation in French. It is generally said that the inceptive quality vanished. It might be fair to say that the idea survived in all French verbs, that there was no need for the inceptive conjugation since all French verbs are essentially inceptive.

It may be said that the thought which goes on in a Frenchman's mind when he says: "je donne" has no strict equivalent in English at any time. That this is so is the result of the several English aspects and of the inceptive quality of the French verb itself.

This consideration of aspect has practical application in the teaching of French. It is interesting to approach the teaching of the imperfect and the past definite tenses in French as two aspects of one single past tense. The imperfect is at once the progressive and imperfective aspect of the verb: the past definite is the inceptive and perfective aspect.

Apart from the difficulties of translation which exist in the present tense and the distinction which may be drawn between the two past tenses, the adverb has become the chief vehicle of aspect in the French verbal system. There remain, however, remnants of inflection to indicate aspect, such as the repetitive prefix "re-", and certain verbs are essentially imperfective (je sais) or perfective (il naît). These last give rise to problems when one attempts to render them in their "unnatural" aspects (je sus and il naissait). This de-naturing of the verb is used for literary effect in such authors as Flaubert where essentially "narrative" (perfective) verbs are rendered in the "descriptive" (imperfective) aspect. The present participle retains the imperfective quality it had in Latin and hence its close association with the imperfect tense. The past participle however shows, as in English, the curious

vacillation between its verbal nature (where it bears the burden of perfectiveness) and its adjectival nature (where it becomes essentially timeless or imperfective). This shifting nature of the participle does not exist in Classical Latin where the perfect participle passive very rarely loses its passive quality (as in pransus and the deponents etc.) and almost never its perfect aspect, but was necessarily developed in French with the disappearance of the aorist and pluperfect forms of the verb. The replacement of the simple one-word Latin perfect system by the compound French system forced a kind of schizophrenia on the past participle. The French past participle is essentially perfect but it becomes curiously imperfective in an adjectival use such as "je suis invité". One more curious indication of imperfective aspect in the French verb is the celebrated use by Saint-Simon of the reflexive in "Madame se meurt: Madame est morte". Here the device is similar to that used in Latin where the highly emotional vixit for "he is dead" depends on the strong expression of the perfective aspect inherent in the Latin perfect indicative.

In spite of these verbal reflections of aspect which for the most part go back to the Latin, the proper handling of a verb from the point of view of aspect, so very important for the English translator, is largely a matter of understanding the enormously rich forest of French adverbial expression. French has lost much of its ability to express aspect in the verb and has thrown this burden on to the adverb and on a series of circumlocutions (je suis en train, je suis en passe, je fais de nouveau, je vois tout d'un coup, etc.) This luxuriant growth of adverb is one of chief contributors to the prosy quality which is so characteristic of the French language.

NOVA SCOTIAN PLACE-NAMES

R. MacG. Dawson, Assistant Professor, Dept. of English, U. of M.

Nova Scotian place-names exhibit, as a result of many years of settlement by successive nationalities, extensive stratification and folk-etymological change but a minimum of arbitrary assignment of names of the type seen along the railway lines across the prairies.

The French, subsequent to the foundation of Port Royal in 1605, established settlements all along the coast up to and including Cape Breton. They did not import names of French towns, but named most of their settlements after people (Saulnierville, Comeauville, Lake Rossignol, Port Latour, River Denys), activities or events (Port Mouton, where a sheep fell overboard, Petit de Grat or Dégrat, where fish was dried), geographical peculiarities (Havre Bouché, Grand Étang, Cape Sable, Framboise Cove, Fourchu Bay), or saints (St. Joseph du Moine, St. Bernard, Ste. Rose).

In 1713 the English gained control of the mainland of Nova Scotia, though not of Cape Breton, and English settlements sprang up. Some of these were on the sites of French settlements and underwent a complete change of names, as, for example, Port Royal which became Annapolis (in honour of the Queen), Port Razoir which became Shelburne, and the Rossignol River which became the Mersey. Some of the names were Anglicised, either in spelling, as Baie des Mines, which developed into Minas Basin, or merely in pronunciation, as Port Mouton (once mutton, now matoon) and Petite Rivière (riveer). Some places were named after notable people, e. g., Halifax, Wentworth, Collingwood, Rodney, and Amherst (this last replacing the French Beauséjour). Many place-names, however, were imported directly from England, and we find Brighton, Liverpool, Litchfield, Hampton, Weymouth, Yarmouth, Chelsea, Cornwall, Torbay, Oxford, Cambridge, Bedford, and Dartmouth.

The Germans, of Hanoverian extraction, who founded Lunenburg in 1753, appear to have shared the French aversion to place-names from the homeland, and outside of Lunenburg itself (which is a variation on Lüneburg, whence many of them came), no German place-names are visible. The local geographical name is common (Oak Hill, Blue Rocks, Blystone or Bleistein Lake), and many places are named after the settlers who lived there (Crousetown, Wentzell's Lake, Heckman's Island, Pentz). There are some curiosities, however. First South (presumably from its position with regard to other villages on a peninsula) is followed by Feltzen ("rocky") South; and Fauxburg, apparently French, though possessing some elements of German spelling, is pronounced Fobo, and does not seem to be a faubourg of any place.

After the rebellion of 1745 many Highland Scots came over and settled along Northumberland Strait and on Cape Breton. They, like the English, brought the old familiar place-names with them, and we may find on the mainland Loch Broom, Knoydart, Arisaig, Glengarry, and Dunmaglass. This enthusiasm has produced a Gairloch, which has no water near it, and the pleonastic Lochaber Lake.

Cape Breton provides Glencoe, Loch Lomond, Dunvegan, Stirling, Aberdeen, Inverness, and Dundee, and immigrants from the Islands named Iona, Lake Uist, Barra Head, Eigg Mountain, and Skye Glen.

There are also a few Gaelic names to be found, e. g., Skir Dhu, Ben Eoin, and Sgurra Bhreac, though these are confined to Cape Breton, where the language is more commonly spoken.

The tendency, however, was to name places after settlers, and this produced Neil's Harbour, Lyons Brook, McGregor Mountain, over a dozen MacDonald Lakes, and the like. "Glen" is the only Scottish topographical term which occurs at all commonly in association with these names: "loch", "burn", "brae", and "ben" are infrequent, having been supplanted by their English equivalents.

The Irish have contributed a few place-names, some concentrated in one area, as New Waterford, River Ryan, Keefe Lake, and Kilkenny Lake; and some isolated, such as Dublin Shore, McGrath Cove, and Antrim.

Minor nationalities, such as the Welsh and the Italians have produced the occasional name, e. g. Probert and Italy Cross, though Lapland and Laconia do not appear to have any significance.

There are many Indian names, frequently modernized in spelling, and often attached to lakes and rivers (e. g. Ponhook, Mushamush, Kejimukujik, Pockwock). Towns, however, are by no means exempt from Indian names, and we find Shubenacadie, Chezzetcook, Ecumsecum, Tatamagouche, Shinemekas, and many more. Some of the original names have undergone considerable change, and thus Micmac Tuckseit became French Tousquet, and English Tusket, just as Camsok became Campseaux, and then Canso.

There are, of course, many place-names derived from local features and possessing little or no history. The geography of the region produced Three Fathom Harbour, Deep Cove, and Western Shore, and the mineral deposits Gold River and Silver Mine. Animals found in the neighbourhood prompted Seal Point, Moose River, Herring Cove, and the like: Bear River is merely a translation of Rivière aux Ours.

The Bible has also served as a source of names. Paradise, Garden of Eden, Hebron, and Jordan River will serve as examples.

Frequently, one name is used for several settlements, with some qualifying word or words attached. There are seven varieties of Pubnico, distinguished by combinations of East and West with Upper, Middle, and Lower, with Pubnico Head in the centre. In Cape Breton we find Judique, Judique North, Judique South, Judique Intervale, Rear of Judique South, Rear of Judique Chapel, Little Judique, and Rear of Little Judique.

This paper has, of course, only skimmed the surface of the subject. There is a great deal more work to be done on the place-names of Nova Scotia, and we may hope that in the near future an exhaustive, county-by-county etymological survey will be undertaken.

(Note: A fuller version of this paper is to be published in the "Onomastica" series).

A LOOK AT ONE PHILOLOGICAL PROBLEM FACING THE MODERN TRANSLATOR
Russell A. Peterson, U. N. D.

Growth in the meaning and significance of words can mean for the modern translator either the touchstone of clarity in translation or the failure to realize that language is constantly replacing its own definitiveness. In one sense, translating is a matter of defining words and connecting them in such a manner as to convey their proper meaning. Strings of word make pictures in one's mind. No translator would deny such an assertion. He would proceed, however, to ask what is meant by a word. How are words selected? What principles are employed in their definition and interpretation? Does the art of translation have the aforementioned goal when it is realized that words at times lose their original meanings and take to themselves new emphases?

Thus, this paper deals with the linguistic problem which faces every would-be translator, namely, what is involved in the need for awareness on the part of the translator of the changing complexion of the language arts as they cast their shadow upon words as these in turn strive to find for themselves a place in the working vocabulary of the contemporary mind.

Words have, as one of their objectives, to affect the reader. For the reader to be affected means that impression and experience are hard at work upon the mind. Words always carry some degree of emotional connotation.

Words, to be meaningful and cutting, must be descriptive. The translator must bring to words another cutting edge, one equally definitive in a prescriptive sense. That is, the translator must be aware of what is involved in man's endeavour to verbalize his ideas, thoughts, and desires. He must be willing to probe the question of what motivates these ideas, suggests these thoughts, and shapes these desires. To permit another human being to sense the same emotional content is the primary task of the translator as he endeavours to bridge a common sensory experience with an uncommon language.

From man has come his language as he expresses his whole being through the medium of the words he chooses to use. To be a translator, he, as another man, must understand his fellow by permitting the initial feelings to pass through his own consciousness, and then find means to express these exact feelings to yet a third man who thinks the same, because he is human, but in a different language.

THE RICHNESS OF THE LINGUISTIC HERITAGE IN GEOLOGY

F. D. Holland, Jr., Assistant Professor, Dept. of Geology, U. N. D.

Relatively few sciences have as rich a linguistic background as has the science of geology. Geology has, in common with the other sciences, many words taken directly from Greek and Latin as well as many words coined by the workers in the field from Greek and Latin "root" words. In addition, geology possesses a wealth of words from a large number of other languages. Few sciences draw so extensively on other languages for their everyday vocabulary.

Geology is basically an outdoor science and geologists are explorers. They seek both rare and common earth products to be used in the spread of civilization and for the betterment of mankind. They also seek to interpret the structure and history of the earth and to explain earth processes. It has been said that "All the world is the geologist's laboratory!" And so, as geologists have spread out to the four corners of the world in the course of their explorations, they have adopted and used a number of the local terms either in direct or modified forms to explain earth history, structure, and processes.

To illustrate the varied nature of the geological vocabulary, a recent beginning geology textbook, "Introduction to Geology", by O. D. Von Engel and K. E. Caster (New York, McGraw-Hill, 1952) was examined. This text was designed primarily for a one-semester introductory course, containing the elements of both physical and historical geology. In it each new word is placed in boldface type as it is introduced and the etymological derivation follows. Chapter 8 is the first chapter in which very many technical terms are introduced. In this chapter are 36 instances of boldface type; six of these are common-word combinations; therefore, 30 are new words. There are mostly terms dealing with igneous rocks such as obsidian, volcanic, basalt, andesite, granite, pegmatite and the names of minerals such as feldspar, olivine, pyroxene, orthoclase, plagioclase and mica. According to the authors, 11 of the 30 new words introduced are from Greek, eight from Latin, four from German, three from Anglo-Saxon, one each from Swedish and Italian, and two are "coined" words. Thus, in this one chapter, thirty new terms are introduced and six languages employed.

Not less than 22 languages were found to be represented by common (i. e., not highly technical) geologic terms in this introductory or "Freshman" text. These read like a world atlas, and include in approximate order of frequency of occurrence, Greek, Latin, German, French, Anglo-Saxon, Spanish, Italian, Icelandic, Norwegian, Swedish, Javanese, Malayan, Hawaiian, Chinese, Japanese, Gaelic, Scotch, Irish, Eskimo, Arabic, etc.

Many words, familiar to all of us, are from other languages. Geyser is from Icelandic; atoll is derived from Malayan; fiord is Norwegian; arroyo is Spanish, and moraïne is derived from Italian.

Many geological words, perhaps not so commonly used, are more specialized. For instance, many terms peculiar to glacial geology are taken directly from, or based on other languages: drumlin, a smooth hill shaped like an inverted spoon is taken from the Gaelic; nunatak, a rock knob in glacial country, is an Eskimo term; till and kame are Scotch peasant words; and esker is derived from the Irish word for ridge. German has contributed a great many words, especially to geomorphology -- loess, feldsenmeer, inselberg, and knickpunkt. Many desertic terms are from Arabic -- wadi, erg, etc. Tsunami, a type of tidal wave, is derived from Japanese; and kaolinite, a clay mineral, is from Chinese. So the list grows!

Beyond the one chapter, no effort was made to make this list complete, nor were advanced books examined. There are merely the words taken from one Freshman text. The list of geological words which have their bases in other languages could be expanded almost indefinitely.

Moreover, the geology student must also be able to recognize exact technical synonyms taken from different languages. One of the most obvious of these is the common butte from French and mesa from Spanish. Less familiar to him may be the term for recrystallized glacial snow which is firn in German and névé in French. For the rockpile at a foot of a cliff the geologist employs, interchangeably, the Icelandic word scree and the French word talus. Here again, only a slight examination of geological literature would show a vast number of these pairs or triplets which are used completely interchangeably by geologists.

In advanced geology courses such as paleontology, geochemistry, and geophysics, even the undergraduate student will find additional specialized vocabularies of technological terms which have their roots in ancient and modern languages in common with biology, chemistry, physics, etc. The linguistic problems of these related fields have purposely not been dealt with here; only strictly geological terms have been considered.

Now, surely even the most optimistic linguist could not expect a student to be familiar with the more than 20 languages mentioned above, nor even with the ten most important languages. Yet this bespeaks a necessity for the student to be familiar with linguistics and etymological methods and techniques and with as many as possible of the most often employed modern languages, as well as with Greek and Latin.

There seems to be a growing trend in many fields of science to eliminate the language requirement for advanced degrees. The writer, personally, would not subscribe to this view. On the contrary, more rigorous examinations for the doctorate and the inclusion of more language, especially Greek and Latin, in the undergraduate and high school curriculum are recommended. If this is not practical, the writer would at least recommend the inclusion in the curriculum of such courses as the ones given at the University of North Dakota called "Latin and Greek Words and Scientific Terminology in English." It is believed that this course should be required of every advanced graduate student in geology who has not otherwise demonstrated at least a passing acquaintance with these languages.

In order to facilitate communication in sciences and assimilation of world literature as the body of scientific knowledge becomes increasingly larger, there must be better and more thorough grounding in linguistic principles and foreign languages for science students.

LEGAL USAGE OF COMMON LATIN-DERIVED WORDS

Raymond G. Larson, Pre-Law, U. N. D.

In writing this paper, I have tried to prove that legal writings (law briefs) have, through the last half-century, shown a trend toward greater usage of common Latin-derived words.

This project was based on the principle of comparison. The comparison was accomplished by comparing certain words used in briefs which were written more than fifty years apart. By choosing briefs similar in nature, I was able to show that most Latin-derived terms are used more frequently today than they were fifty years ago.

Twenty specific legal words, taken from Sweet and Maxwell's Latin for Lawyers, were used throughout the study. Following is a breakdown of the words and their frequencies.

WORDS	Total - old briefs (1890-1900)	Total -new briefs (1946-1957)
Plaintiff	84	177
Respondent	13	6
Appellant	66	24
Defendant	96	297
Property	53	101
Judgement	28	128
Fact	66	60
Proof	3	1
Jury	31	17
Part	0	7
Law	23	30
Court	226	276
Allege	27	16
Just (justice)	4	2
Case	133	101
Evidence	46	18
Trial	92	80
Habeas corpus	15	1
Appointment	0	8
Jurisdiction	52	10
	<u>1,058</u>	<u>1,360</u>

From the above totals we see a trend which may prove that legal men of today use Latin-derived words more frequently than their colleagues

of more than half a century earlier.

Now the question arises, "Do the figures 1058 and 1360 prove without a doubt that Latin-derived words are used more often today than in the past?" Perhaps not, but there are other means by which we may substantiate this theory.

First, it appears to me that legal briefs are becoming more difficult to read and to interpret as time goes by. Why, though, are these legal writings becoming more complex? The answer is that legal men of today are receiving more and better training than those of yesterday. For example, consider Stephan Hopkins, Roger Sherman, and Samuel Huntington: these men received little or no education, yet they were all signers of the Declaration of Independence. From this analogy, it is quite understandable that today's lawyers have a better command of legal terminology.

Secondly, law, like medicine, is continuously adding different meanings to words and creating new words. This is necessary because 'specialization' has exhausted nearly all the existing legal terms.

This, then, is why legal writings show a trend toward greater usage of common Latin-derived words.

THE DECIPHERMENT OF THE CRETAN SCRIPTS

G. P. Goold, Associate Professor, Dept. of Classics, U. of M.

IT IS NOT OFTEN that the classical scholar is involved in exciting research, still less that such research is a matter of general interest. But the recent decipherment of the Cretan Linear B script ranks as one of the greatest intellectual achievements of our century. Unlike the breaking of Egyptian hieroglyphic and Babylonian cuneiform, it was accomplished without a bilingual key.

Our story really goes back to 1867, when Heinrich Schliemann, in commencing his amazing excavations at Troy, inaugurated a series of spectacular discoveries in the Aegean. The culmination of these was the bringing to light in 1900 by Arthur Evans of the resplendent and labyrinthine palace of Knossos. The most sensational revelation was the fact that the Minoans - so Evans named the people of this new-found civilization - were literate. Primitive and crude signs on seals and stones go back in Crete to the early Bronze Age, becoming more and more refined till in the middle Bronze Age we have two fully developed scripts (named Linear A and Linear B). Evans' chief find was thousands of clay tablets, obviously inventories or bills of account. From an analysis of the symbols employed he could see that they referred to men, livestock, agricultural produce, textiles, swords, and chariots. In view of the apparent continuity of writing Evans believed all these tablets to be written in the native "Minoan" language.

The symbols on the tablets could be classified in three main groups: first there were the numerals, for close conformity with Egyptian and Babylonian systems rendered their identification certain; next there came a group of symbols whose design and use with numerals suggested that they represented men, animals, etc., and were ideograms, that is, that they expressed a meaning rather than a phonetic value; the last group consisted of signs which appeared in an infinite variety of combinations in groups ranging up to eight symbols, the total number of symbols employed being about seventy-five. These, it was generally agreed, were phonetic. For various considerations it was deemed very probable that the phonetic part of the script was an open syllabary like the Japanese Gojuon, that is, the symbols express sounds like ba, be, bi, bo, bu; ga, ge, gi, go, gu etc.

The first major step towards decipherment was made by the American, Alice Kober. She demonstrated that Linear A and Linear B represented different languages, and concentrated on the much more numerous Linear B tablets. She collected a series of words which appeared with three different endings (their context made it clear that they were the same words

and not just coincidences). Then, illustrating her argument by examples from

	<u>Noun X</u>	<u>Noun Y</u>	<u>cf. in Latin</u>
<u>Case A</u>	70-52- <u>41</u> -57	03-28- <u>37</u> -57	a-mi-CU-s
<u>Case B</u>	70-52- <u>41</u> -36	03-28- <u>37</u> -36	a-mi-CU-m
<u>Case C</u>	70-52- <u>12</u>	03-28- <u>05</u>	a-mi-CI

Latin, she considered the penultimate columns of symbols, and showed that certain symbols shared the same consonant (41 and 12; 37 and 05 in the examples here given) and certain symbols the same vowel (41 and 37; 12 and 05). For typographical convenience I give Bennett's symbol-numbers, not the symbols themselves. From her conclusions Kober was able to construct a table or grid, part of which is reproduced with the values subsequently determined being added within brackets:

	<u>Consonant 1</u>	<u>Consonant 2</u>
<u>Vowel 1</u>	41 (SI)	37 (TI)
<u>Vowel 2</u>	12 (SO)	05 (TO)

Kober placed in her grid ten symbols (all, as we now know, were correct); but though no further progress was made before her death in 1950, she herself held back from experimenting with phonetic values.

Kober's methods were taken over by Michael Ventris. He was no newcomer to Linear B, for his interest in the problem had been aroused whilst he was still at school. Whereas Kober was primarily cautious and certain, Ventris was bold and adventurous. He took the natural step of completing the grid (not as easy as it sounds) and began to play with phonetic values. After a year's trial and error he discovered that by applying certain values to his grid he obtained from among Kober's declensions the names of five of the chief cities of Crete (Nouns X and Y gave Knossos and Phaestos, for example). This fixed immediately the phonetic value of over thirty of the symbols and at once everything began to fall into place, soon fixing another thirty values. The language was Greek.

The decipherment came in many ways as a shock to scholars, for Evans' authority had led to widespread acceptance of the view that the Mycenaean civilization had been a pre-Hellenic one. But any doubts of the genuineness of the decipherment were removed when the Americans later found more tablets in Greece, which could be translated perfectly according to

Ventris' values. Naturally the effect of the decipherment on Greek studies has been enormous. Our histories of early Greece have had to be completely rewritten, and the structure of Mycenaean society (which had close contact with the orient) has revealed itself as an exceptionally interesting field of study. Students of language have undoubtedly had the greatest thrill; much that comparative philology had conjectured has now been documented, and in particular there is a set of symbols to represent the postulated labio-velars. However, with triumph came tragedy, for in 1956 (when he was still only 34) Ventris was killed in a road accident.

Interest is now becoming focused on the undeciphered Linear A. Though the material is meagre and fragmentary, approximate phonetic values may be regarded as established. It seems clear that the language is not Greek. An imaginative attempt has been made to identify Semitic roots in some of the words, whilst another endeavour claims to recognize traces of Hieroglyphic Hittite. There is every sign that researchers in this field are in for exciting times.

The Decipherment of Linear B, by John Chadwick, Cambridge, 1958, is a readable and authoritative account, and recommended to the interested.

PRESENT PRACTICES IN TRANSLATION OF SCIENTIFIC PUBLICATIONS FROM
RUSSIAN AND OTHER LANGUAGES

Lawrence Summers, Professor, Dept. of Chemistry, U. N. D.

Translation services are performed in the United States by a number of agencies, but the bulk of the translation of scientific material is done by three or four organizations. The work takes two forms: cover-to-cover translation of foreign periodicals on a subscription basis, and custom translation. Translation of scientific research material is done almost entirely by scientists who are experts in the various fields, and who do the translation on a part-time basis for a translation agency. The translation agency itself is essentially a technical publishing business which differs from other forms of technical publishing mainly in the difficulty of the editorial problems encountered. The material is printed by some offset or diazo process. The service thus offered is satisfactory from the point of view of the scientist: good translations are available quickly at a cost which is not too high. The desirability of the establishment of a public governmental translation agency in this country at the present time therefore seems questionable. There is, however, a need for more useful lists of available translations, indexed by author, title, and subject, and for abstracts or translations of abstracts. Advances have been made in machine translation research in the past ten years, but mostly on a theoretical level; economically, machine translation cannot at present compete with translation by human translators. This situation will undoubtedly change in the future.

A SYMPOSIUM

"Linguistic, Fblkloric, and Other Field Work in Central Canada
and the Northern Plains: Results and Future Tasks."

(1) Field Procedure for Gathering Linguistic Data.

Professor Norman B. Levin, of the University of North Dakota, said that one of the functions of the linguist is to assemble facts about the structural system of a given language, and to do this he must develop certain techniques which will enable him to discover the phonemic and morphemic system of this language. The best method of analysis is to seek the assistance of a native speaker of the language, or "informant", who can be interviewed either in the laboratory or in his native habitat. If he is interviewed in the latter place, his speech must be recorded for analysis at a later time.

It is essential to record on the tape the date of birth, place of birth, sex, place of residence, major travel experiences, occupation, and the extent of formal education of the informant, since these will affect his speech to a great extent.

It is also necessary to determine the extent of stiffness of behaviour, "mike fright", and hyper-correctness by means of a trial run with the tape recorder.

If possible, there should be an interviewer (the most influential or respected informant, if there is a choice), since there is a greater rapport between native speakers. This leaves the linguist free to observe the articulatory positions of the teeth, tongue, lips, etc., of the informant.

Professor Levin disagreed with the belief of many investigators that the informant is likely to be affected by the knowledge that his speech is being scrutinized and that the linguist should therefore disguise the purpose of his interview. His own experience had been that his Siouan informants had been anxious to respond when told that their language was being lost and that it was their duty to put the language on tape so that posterity might hear it as it was actually spoken.

The choice of a tape recorder, he felt, is important. The field worker should have a machine which can be operated, through a converter, from the electrical system of an automobile, since there are many Indian homes without electricity. A battery-operated recorder is available for areas which are not accessible by automobile.

When actually recording an interview, Professor Levin stressed the importance of keeping background noise to a minimum, ensuring the

physical comfort of the informant, and properly identifying the tapes.

There are various means of eliciting utterances from informants. The linguist may point out objects, he may use a special list of selected words, or he may employ a set of pictures about which questions may be asked. He has attempted to use the experimental pictorial linguistic interview manual of the American Library of Recorded Dialect Studies, but has found it unsatisfactory, since the wrong responses were often suggested. There is a great need for a better manual for this purpose, and he is happy to report that the language laboratory at U. N. D. is working on this problem.

(2) Recording of Slavic Speech in Canada

Professor J. B. Rudnyčkj, of the University of Manitoba, with reference to his previous work in this field and to his publications in scholarly serials and periodicals*, discussed the following problems for future research:

1. The problem of the linguistic assimilation of the Slavs in Canada and the United States a) to the English language, and b) to the other languages, including Slavic.
2. The phonetic, morphological, syntactic, and lexicological description of the Slavic languages and their dialects in Canada and the United States.
3. Mapping of the Slavic languages and their dialects in Canada and the United States.
4. Research on the English loan-words in the Canadian and American Slavic languages (chiefly the spoken languages).
5. Research on a "Slavicised English" as a special type of English spoken by Slavs in Canada and the United States.
6. Slavic place-names in Canada and the United States.
7. Slavic-English family and Christian names.

The study of the above questions will require time and trained field researchers.

* Bulletin of AATSEEL, vol. 7, no. 1, Philadelphia, 1949, pp. 13-14.
Orbis, vol. 1, no. 1, pp. 109-112, 418-422, Louvain (Belgium), 1952; and vol. 4, 1954, pp. 58-61.
The Journal of the Canadian Linguistic Association, vol. 1, Edmonton, 1955, pp. 19-20.
Canadian Slavonic Papers, vol. 1, Toronto, 1956, pp. 89-92.
The Slavic and East European Journal, vol. 15, Bloomington, Ind., 1957, pp. 34-40.
Onomastica, No. 2 (1951, 1957), No. 11 (1956), No. 15 (1958).
Ukrainica Occidentalia, vol. 3, Winnipeg, 1956, vol. 5, 1958, and others.

(3) Pitfalls to be Avoided by the Field Ethnographer.

The third paper in this series, a further study of the problems of recording the speech of the American Indian, by J. H. Howard, Assistant Professor, Dept. of Sociology and Anthropology, U. N. D., was unfortunately not available at the time of publication.

THE KING'S "JUSTICE" IN PRE-EXILIC ISRAEL:
A SEMANTIC-INSTITUTIONAL STUDY

The Rev. Canon W. I. Wolverton, Professor, Dept. of Oriental Languages and Literature, St. John's College.

The Hebrew verbal root shafat is generally translated in the Old Testament by the words "to judge." The nomen agentis, shofet and the substantive, mishpat have also been generally translated "judge" and "justice" (or "judgment") respectively. A careful analysis of these words in the pre-exilic material, however, reveals that they pertain oftentimes to an aspect of rule in which the chief, leader or king brings about deliverance from internal or external enemies. At the time of the institution of the kingship in Israel it was the king himself whose duties included both protection against external enemies, for the nation, and the preservation of rights of oppressed individuals, within the society. This latter is analogous to the "king's equity" as found in medieval England, an institution whereby a person failing to secure satisfaction in a case of personal rights in the normal judicial system was able to apply directly to the king for equity.

In the pre-exilic material mishpat oftentimes refers to this institution. The ideal of kingship held by the Israelite included the maintenance of mishpat for the poor, dispossessed, alienated, widowed or orphaned. It is not justice in the abstract or impersonal sense but the duty of kings, a kind of noblesse oblige, to relieve the distressed elements within the society. However with the settlement of Israel in Canaan and the loss of tribal securities for the unfortunate there developed a large exploited group of indigent folk. The eighth century prophets call for the old idealized mishpat.

But the guarantees for these unfortunates had broken down with the failures of kingship. Messianic thinking of the prophets included the coming of the ideal prince who would restore mishpat. Ultimately mishpat became an attribute of God, although foreshadowings of this attribute were present in the revelation to Moses of a deity who heard the cries of distress of his people and delivered them.

This "moment" or aspect of the Hebrew root shafat has been obscured by the punitive use of the term in the 7th and 6th centuries B. C. in the judgment of God upon his people, and by failure of translators to understand the early institution. This is a case where the translator must be both a semanticist and a student of social institutions.

This study reveals an ideal of humaneness in ancient Israel as well as a special insight into the "grace" of God. In this case while a social institution may not be the origin or source of a theological idea it may become the means of its clarification and may supply the concrete imagery for the understanding of it.

"SPUTNIK" AND ITS DERIVATIVES IN NORTH AMERICAN ENGLISH
J. B. Rudnyčkyj, Professor, Dept. of Slavic Studies, U. of M.

The successful launching of two Soviet man-made satellites in 1957 had an interesting impact on the English language as it is spoken in Canada and in the United States.

The term "sputnik" itself, according to one authority, achieved "the fastest acceptance and into-dictionary print ever recorded by a foreign word." Overnight it became a universal loan-word in all the world's languages and today it is in everybody's vocabulary.

There is also widespread employment of derivatives of the word: "pre-sputnik", "post-sputnik" and even "after-sputnik"; and there are the usual combinations -- "sputnik age", "sputnik era", "sputnik congress", "sputnik diplomacy", and so on.

The wide use of the word has also brought about the addition of the suffix "nik" to many words. Words like "flopnik", "beatnik", "speednik" and many others started to spread around in everyday speech and the list grows longer as time goes by.

It is little wonder then that "sputnik linguistics" as a theoretical investigation of the influence of the sputnik on the English language soon came into being. The first articles on this topic appeared in American Speech, vol. 33, no. 2, May 1958, by W. White (pp. 153-154) and L. M. Ackermann (pp. 154-156). They were soon followed by a study by Arthur Minton entitled "Sputnik and some of its off-shootniks" (Names, Berkeley, Cal., no. 2, 1958). Mr. Minton collected all possible "niks" from American newspapers and journals and presented an excellent analysis of this new phenomenon in English.

Minton was soon followed by Professor Roman Smal-Stocki, head of the Department of Slavic Studies at Marquette University in Milwaukee. In a paper entitled "The impact of the sputnik on the English language of the U. S. A." (Shevchenko Scientific Centre, Chicago, 1958), the professor added some new words which had been coined in the meantime. He wrote:

"Their expansion is a case story for the illustration of the fact of how historical events are filed in the archives of a language. The language of a nation includes in its vocabulary all its victories and defeats, successes and failures. Even if, through later events, a word is erased, it is nevertheless recorded in the vocabulary ...

"The Russian language and the Russian nation is, in this case

(the sputnik), receiving an unjust monopoly for an achievement which, in fact, is a 'Soviet' multi-national achievement; because collaboration in it were many non-Russians (Armenians, Ukrainians, Jews, Germans, and other nationalities)."

Professor Smal-Stocki quotes some "pre-sputnik" words known in colloquial English -- "nudnik" -- a bore, "no-goodnik" -- a scoundrel -- that came from the Slavic languages through American Yiddish. These and many names ending in "nik" (e. g. Reznik) prepared the road for the widespread use of sputnik derivatives on this continent.

I have collected some new material regarding - nik-formations and also received slips from Professor Mamie J. Meredith of the University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Neb. . I have come to the following conclusions concerning the rapid spread of - nik-neologisms in North American English:

1. It is owing to the existence of the suffixes -ic (ethic) and -nic (through the false separation from such words as ethnic, volcanic); to the onomatological associations with Nick (Nicholas) -- e. g., tigernik, from tiger and Nick -- and many Slavic-Jewish surnames in -nik (e. g. Budnik); and to the folk-etymological transformations of English words (bottleneck; bottlenik).

2. It is encouraged by the ironical and humorous meaning of the majority of -nik-neologisms.

3. It is further encouraged by the "absence of purism" (R. Smal-Stocki) and an unlimited linguistic freedom on the North American continent.

AUDIOLOGICAL IMPLICATIONS FOR THE LINGUIST

Frederick E. Garbee, Assistant Professor, Dept. of Speech, and Director of Speech, Hearing Clinic, U. N. D.

The purpose of this presentation is to call attention to some interrelationships between speech and hearing, concerning the listener as well as the speaker, and discuss important aspects of the hearing evaluation.

First, when degeneration of hearing occurs, normal speech is placed in jeopardy. The dependence of normal speech on the integrity of the hearing mechanism is clearly emphasized in recent studies. Voice and articulatory deviations may successfully select members of the perceptive or conductive hard-of-hearing population.

Second, a functional relationship exists between speech and hearing, i. e. , an active reciprocity of speech and hearing at any given moment under varied environmental settings and adverse conditions. Our perception of speech as well as our production of speech is greatly determined by the degenerative and functional processes of hearing.

Steps taken in evaluating hearing, such as those employed at the University of North Dakota's Speech and Hearing Clinic, include, after the individual has received an otologist's medical evaluation, pure-tone audiometry (both air and bone conduction), speech audiometry (including establishing the nonaural and binaural Speech Reception Threshold, Most Comfortable Loudness Level, Tolerance Level, Dynamic Range, and Discrimination scores), considering the Social Adequacy Index, in addition to counseling by an audiologist, the making of recommendations and if necessary, proper referrals.

THE ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF URDU

Norman B. Levin, Assistant Professor, Dept. of Languages, U. N. D.

In this paper I shall trace the various invasions of India which contributed to the growth of Hindustani and the concomitant effects of the history of Muslim rule, in an attempt to present the origin and some of the development of the currently spoken Urdu language.

The Indo-Aryan languages, which are related to the Indo-European languages of Europe, are spoken by 73% of the population; Dravidian by some 20%; Austric by less than 1.3%; and Sino-Tibetan by less than 1%.

It was the Indo-European people who helped contribute to the present day Hindustani. History tells of the oldest form of Aryan speech, found in the Vedas, and of how this Vedic speech, known also as Vedic Sanskrit, gradually changed into what is known as the Middle Indo-Aryan dialects.

These Middle Indo-Aryan dialects spread over northern India with the Aryan expansion and were known as Prakrits. After 1,000 A. D., the Prakrits developed into the Modern Indo-Aryan languages of today.

The most important Indo-Aryan language is Hindi, the language of nearly 150 million people, or nearly 44% of the population of India. It is Hindi's twin tongue, Urdu, which is the official language of Muslim Pakistan.

V. A. Smith feels that it was not until the seventeenth century, when the Delhi speech was much in vogue in the Deccan, with the Mogul Emperor sending expeditions against the Deccan Muslim states, that Urdu evolved. He terms this speech Zaban e Urdu, the language of the camp.

The etymon of the word Urdu, is derived from urdu-e-mu'alla, which means place of residence of the king. It is an Altaic word found in various Turki languages, differently spelled. URDU is the Persianized spelling. The Turki word meant tent, camp, encampment, dwelling of a chief, stemming from the fact that the tents or camps of the Mogul princes were the courts.

Urdu may be defined as the Persianized Hindustani of educated Muslims, while Hindi is the Sanskritized Hindustani of the educated Hindus. As for the written character of Urdu, from the number of Persian words which it contains, it can be most conveniently written in the Persian character. Urdu is formed from a considerable number of Persian and Arabic nouns, which have been furnished with Hindi suffixes. These suffixes are spelled phonetically, according to the corrupt pronunciation of the natives, and are declined like indigenous nouns by means of the usual postposition or case affixes.

In High Urdu, the use of Persian words is carried to an almost incredible extreme. The writings of this class exhibit Hindi morphological structure with a Persian vocabulary. One might postulate that this extreme Persianization was not the work of the conquerors themselves, ignorant as they were of the tongue of the people, but rather the results of the Hindu ability to assimilate the language of the rulers.

The authors of Urdu, then, were the Kayasths and Khatri, employed by the administration and acquainted with Persian, rather than Persianized Turks. To them goes the credit for the use of the Persian character for their vernacular speech, and the consequent preference for words to which that character is native.

According to Grierson, 45% of the vocabulary of Urdu is Hindi, 20% Persian, 34% Arabic, and the remainder, Turki, English, and Portuguese. Hindu linguists classify utterances as Urdu or Hindi, not according to vocabulary primarily, but also according to syntactic structure, the order of words.

The syntactic structure of Urdu shows a preference for the verb in the middle of the utterance, rather than at the end as in Hindi. The subject in Urdu occurs after the object, rather than before, as in Hindi.

The development of Urdu depended largely upon the growth and development of Hindustani. Written Urdu is that form of Hindustani which is Persian in character. Urdu has, as I have said before, a considerable number of Perso-Arabic words and turns of speech, added to a Hindi framework.

It is regretted that the following papers were not available at the time of publication:

Prof. G. C. Wheeler, Professor, Dept. of Biology, U. N. D.
"Linguistic Problems of a Biologist".

P. B. Kannowski, Assistant Professor, Dept. of Biology, U. N. D.
"Biological 'Houses'".

We hope that it will be possible to publish abstracts of them at a later date.