# Studies of particular languages

# **ENGLISH**

68-263 Arnold, Roland. 'Them' als demonstratives Adjektiv. ['Them' as a demonstrative adjective.] Zeitschrift für Anglistik und Amerikanistik (Leipzig), 15, 1 (1967), 44-59.

The plural demonstrative adjective them is one of the notable features of present-day English substandard speech. It appears in British, American and Australian English. A brief historical survey of the use of they, their and them is given with a note of dialect use in English and usage in Ireland. It is concluded that the demonstrative adjective them passed into substandard English in the second half of the seventeenth century and from that time it spread rapidly overseas wherever English was spoken.

68-264 Croft, Kenneth. Some co-occurrences in American clichés. TESOL Quarterly (Washington, DC), 1, 2 (1967), 47-9.

A number of language matters involving aspects of culture do not appear in textbooks, for example the habit of associating words in pairs and clichés. A native speaker will immediately provide the second word in the pair if given the first. Sets of three words are fairly common too, but not so numerous. The pairs and triplets have a fixed order. Another pairing device is the simile. Some of these are tightly associated and are used throughout the country, others are more loosely associated and may vary geographically, socially or according to the situation. [Many examples of such sets are given.] It may not be widely realized how extensive our use of such expressions is.

68-265 Cygan, Jan. Asyndetic hypotaxis—a difficulty of English. Glottodidactica (Poznan), 2, 1967, 95-8.

Asyndetic hypotaxis or the conjunctionless subordination of clauses, e.g. he said he would come, is difficult for foreign learners of English. It is known that no conjunction is needed with 'reporting' verbs but the relative clause, sometimes referred to as a 'contact' clause, needs explanation and the rules commonly given in textbooks are not satisfactory. Transformational grammar seems to offer a solution and Robert B. Lees's The Grammar of English Nominalizations is quoted on the omission of relative. Providing his use of the word 'noun' is understood to mean a 'nominal' or even a 'nominal phrase' a reasonable definition is provided which the author feels can be made fully satisfactory by reversing Lees' statement and suggesting that the relative may not be dispensed with if a verb follows. The problem remains of the genitive relative whose, which can never be omitted. As to the occasions when it is possible to choose whether to insert or omit the relative pronoun, English seems to favour the more economical asyndetic construction.

**68-266 Davies, Eirian C.** Some notes on English clause types. Transactions of the Philological Society (Oxford), 1967, 1-31.

The relationship between certain grammatical features in some types of English clauses and the speech function of comment is discussed. An attempt is made to show that differences in the type of comment correlate with grammatical distinctions. In order to refer to adverbs as a device for carrying comment about a situation as a whole in addition to mood, the author uses the term 'clause comment adjuncts'. He attempts to show that there are some differences in the underlying deep grammar of clauses, according to the subtype of clause comment adjunct which they are found to contain; and that the different subtypes of clause comment adjunct discussed may be correlated with differences in the origin of the comment, and in what comment is about, that is, in its domain. Differences in the deep

grammar of various clauses are indicated by means of the application of transformational type tests. Examples used are taken from a variety of sources including a collection of seventy-five leading articles which appeared in *The Times* during September and October 1966, three recorded conversations between educated adult native speakers of English, and the writer's own intuitions as a native speaker.

68-267 Jonson, Gördis. Adverbs of degree in 'The Observer'.

Moderna Språk (Saltsjö-Duvnäs), 61, 4 (1967), 337-53.

The author studied 118 adverbs of degree written as one word and functioning as modifiers of adjectives and other adverbs, in twenty-eight issues of *The Observer*. He distinguished between occurrences in leaders and editorial comments and occurrences in reviews of the arts. He gives frequency figures and comments on the use of each adverb. His main findings are that adverbs ending in-ly occur more often in the reviews than in the editorials, that simple adverbs are commoner in the editorials, that very is more characteristic of the editorials, that in the reviews there is continual variety in the use of adverbs of degree, and that the style of the editorials is more matter-of-fact than that of the reviews.

68-268 Mutt, O. Some recent developments in the use of nouns as premodifiers in English. Zeitschrift für Anglistik und Amerikanistik (Leipzig), 15, 4 (1967), 401-8.

Various new structural types of prepositive attribute are observable in current English. The plural attributive is becoming commoner. Almost any compound noun can be found as a pre-modifier. Among pre-modifiers are phrasal verbs converted into nouns. It is becoming commoner to lump a group of words together into a compound, which is then used as a pre-modifier. Such formations now appear more and more frequently outside advertising, newspapers, and facetious writing. A wider range of nouns is used in apposition with names of persons. Modifiers are added to the prepositive substantival attribute itself.

The widespread use of nouns as prepositive attributes has led to the semantic differentiation of existing adjectives. Differences of meaning have developed between names of countries used as premodifiers and the corresponding derived adjectives.

The use of complex group modifiers is spreading. Other parts of speech besides nouns are being used.

68-269 Országh, László. A plea for a dictionary of modern idiomatic English. *Hungarian Studies in English* (Debrecen), 3 (1967), 71-81.

[The author pays tribute to the quality, quantity and variety of modern English lexicography.] One aspect of words is neglected in modern English dictionaries: their ecology or associative patterning.

A dictionary should indicate the sphere of applicability of words listed (e.g. what nouns can be described by a given adjective, what subjects or objects are usual with a given verb). A few examples or quotations are not adequate information on this. Phraseology must be recorded: idiomatic expressions, which are not self-explanatory; fixed combinations of two or three words (closed lexicological units which are not always self-explanatory); frequent word associations. Information on emotive connotations and stylistic range, often curtailed in recent works, is necessary: labels could be used more frequently, and their range increased.

In a dictionary such as that proposed, some characteristics of traditional English dictionaries could be dropped: comprehensiveness (the number of entries required will be limited, as it is the most frequently used English vocabulary that is particularly rich in phraseological material, and room will have to be provided for hitherto unrecorded material), etymological information, encyclopaedic wordlists and entries.

Polysemic derivatives should be clearly defined, not simply referred to the base-word. The printing of quotations, often untypical, should be curtailed or abandoned. Phraseological material should be based on thorough, systematic collation of contemporary printed and

spoken texts, as well as on the contents of existing monolingual and bilingual dictionaries. This would be an 'unconcise' dictionary, giving far more detail than has been provided hitherto, on only a limited number of words.

[The author illustrates his points with examples.]

**68–270** van Ek, J. A. A grammatical description of the accusative with infinitive and related structures in English. *English Studies* (Amsterdam), 48, 6 (1967), 511–27 and i–xvii.

The author discusses terminology at length and decides on eight terms: accusative with plain infinitive (I let it happen), accusative with to—infinitive (I ordered him to come), accusative with -ing (I saw him coming), accusative with past participle (I saw it done), nominative with plain infinitive (it was let happen), nominative with to—infinitive (he was ordered to come), nominative with -ing (he was seen coming), and nominative with past participle (he was seen beaten).

Definitions of 'nominative with infinitive' and 'accusative with infinitive' given in standard grammars (Poutsma, Jespersen, Kruisinga, Zandvoort) are discussed.

The author outlines and illustrates the principles of generativetransformational grammar, concentrating on the syntactic component, and goes on to describe each of the eight structures in generativetransformational terms.

68-271 Venezky, Richard L. The basis of English orthography.

Acta Linguistica Hafniensia (Copenhagen), 10, 2 (1967),
145-59.

There is no comprehensive study of modern English spelling-to-sound correspondences and no detailed history of English spelling.

The earliest writings on English orthography are based on an alphabetic principle. From Alfred's time onwards orthography has been delimited by the letters and their sounds. This has led to the view that English orthography is a faulty phonetic system, and much of the graphemic and morphemic patterning has been ignored.

[Exceptions in Francis, Hockett, and Vachek.] Spelling reformers' arguments are based on the assumption that alphabets should be phonetic.

Graphemic and phonemic systems are not parallel. Some graphemics function as markers. Graphemes, unlike phonemes, are not necessarily language-dependent or functionally defined. Graphs are classified into graphemes on the basis of form alone. Vowels are classifiable into primary and secondary. Primary units have two main stressed pronunciations, tend to become |a| when unstressed, and appear in all possible graphemic positions. Compound units generally have one main stressed pronunciation, do not usually reduce to |a|, and occur rarely before double consonants. [The author defines and illustrates 'relational unit' and 'marker', and enumerates the major and minor consonant and vowel relational units. He discusses the markers of vowel correspondences, consonant correspondences, graphotactical patterns, and morphemic patterns. He deals with the graphemic alternations of i and y, u and w, ous and os, and i and e.]

68-272 Walsh, N. G. Distinguishing types and varieties of English in Nigeria. *Journal of the Nigerian English Studies Association* (Ile-Ife), 2 (1967), 47-55.

Nigerian English is distinguished from world standard English by the use of acceptable local variants and also non-acceptable forms. Educated Nigerians are usually less tolerant of non-standard usage than specialist expatriates are, yet use non-standard forms themselves. Forms employed generally by educated speakers may be considered standard regional variants.

Some non-standard forms in Nigerian English reflect social and physical areas of difference, while others are the result of carrying forms of the first language over to English, or of a distinction in English not made in the first language. 'Varieties' of Nigerian English exist as subtypes. Phonological variation is considerable. It is hardly possible to consider pidgin as a type of English: its similarities with standard English are few. Much more work is needed to provide an adequate description of Nigerian English.

# FRENCH

68-273 Falk, P. A propos du syntagme 'à moins que de + infinitif'. [On the syntagm 'à moins que de + infinitive'.] Revue de Linguistique Romane (Lyons), 31, 123/4 (1967), 252-66.

This particular use of *que de* appears in modern French in comparative phrases or with a comparative meaning. [Examples of the categories: comparison of inequality, of equality, of inequality followed by a noun or pronoun, of equality followed by a noun or pronoun, are illustrated from Old French.]

The construction is an anomaly which must have been avoided in the written language although it was probably common in speech. It was not commonly accepted in the written language till the fifteenth or even sixteenth century, and then was chiefly used with the infinitive. [Historical examples follow of the development of  $\grave{a}$  moins que + noun,  $\grave{a}$  moins de + noun, then  $\grave{a}$  moins que de + noun, leading finally in the seventeenth century to the usage  $\grave{a}$  moins que de + infinitive in its modern meaning.] The views of Littré and Tobler on the development of the form and meaning of  $\grave{a}$  moins que de are cited and illustrated, the author favouring the steps Littré has taken towards the solution of the problem. An appendix comparing the expression with a similar Swedish form underlines the composition of the phrase within a negative phrase. Guez de Balzac is quoted in a sentence showing transition of meaning from the original 'without...' to the present meaning of 'except' or 'unless'.

68-274 Lambert, W. E. The use of 'tu' and 'vous' as forms of address in French Canada: a pilot study. Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior (New York), 6,4 (1967), 614-17.

Non-reciprocal usage of address forms has given way through time to a symmetrical use of the same form by both speakers, tu being used by both to indicate solidarity and vous being used to indicate social distance. This trend suggests that the importance of expressing status differences in this manner has diminished in recent times. Information about the use of tu and vous was collected from a group

of 136 adolescent boys in French Canada. Two important instances of non-reciprocal usage were noted: grandparents used tu to their grandchildren and expected vous in return, and the same situation appeared between parents and children, especially from working-class backgrounds. These trends are discussed in terms of (a) French Canadian social norms and the demands made on those learning them, and (b) their effects on those learning the language itself. The rules are apparently much more complicated for French Canadians than for European French. It is recognized that a pilot study is insufficient to establish the reasons for current usage but the analysis made is statistically strong enough to indicate that social class differences should be examined more carefully in future studies of this aspect of French-Canadian social interaction.

## **GERMAN**

**68–275 Pollak, Wolfgang.** Variantes géographiques du vocabulaire allemand. [Geographical variants in German vocabulary.] *Revue des Langues Vivantes* (Brussels), **33**, 4 (1967), 369–385.

Unlike French, educated German speech admits many regional lexical variants as being perfectly acceptable so long as they form part of the educated speech of the region. A number of these are examined in detail here.

Historically, these differences in vocabulary have been most marked between the northern and southern parts of the German-speaking world, but the political division of Germany since the end of the second world war has created a new set of changes. These lie mainly within the vocabulary of politics, social and economic organization, education and culture, and consist not only of lexical differences but also of differences in semantic values and ideological concepts associated with the same word. The general vocabulary and basic structures of the language, however, remain unchanged.

A special plea is made for the many Austrian variants which should have equal validity with North German ones for consideration as part of the standard language.

## **ITALIAN**

68-276 Crisari, Maurizio and Wanda D'Addio. Caratteristiche prosodiche dell'Italiano. [Characteristics of Italian prosody.] Homo Loquens (Rome), 1, 2 (1967), 2-24.

Phonemes of intensity, stress and juncture can be distinguished (the latter coinciding with cessation of phonation). A prosodic morpheme equals a locution displaying at least one final juncture, one stress and one variation in intensity. Italian is partitioned by final junctures into prosodic morphemes, the pattern of juncture decides where the stress shall fall and this in turn decrees the distribution of intensity. Falling, rising and sustained juncture are illustrated. Intonational structure is built around the characteristics of stress which are classified and illustrated for Italian. Three melodic levels are characteristic of intonation. Every syllable has its own level and there is often a change of level within a syllable. [Schematic representations show intonation patterns giving the basic and transformation types.] Emotional implications make it dangerous for Italian students to use the wrong intonation pattern in English.

68-277 Di Pietro, Robert J. Phonemics, generative grammar and the Italian sibilants. Studia Linguistica (Lund), 21, 2 (1967), 96-106.

A completely satisfactory explanation of Italian sibilants has remained difficult to achieve within the taxonomic framework of structural phonemics. Standard descriptions of Italian phonology usually recognize six environments in which the occurrence of [s] or [z] is predictable. [Illustrations.] The author suggests three other environments and notes that societal and geographical implications have to be considered.

In searching for a more adequate explanation the attempt to treat the sound segments of Italian as entities operating on a separate phonological level is abandoned and instead a generative view is adopted of sounds as complexes of features subjected to phonological rules in the conversion of morphemes into sound segments. The generative model employed is essentially the one formulated by Halle in several works (cited). A list of pertinent sound features is drawn up and two possible solutions using these features are suggested, of which the second is favoured because, amongst other advantages, it enables regional variations of the standard language to be incorporated within the total grammar.

68-278 Romeo, Luigi. On the phonemic status of the so-called 'geminates' in Italian. *Linguistics* (The Hague), 29 (1967), 105-16.

Italian offers a rich field for the study of the 'geminates' or 'double consonants' common to many languages. De Gregorio (1931) drew attention to the importance of the intensity of expiration of air in differentiating the 'consonanti doppie' from the 'consonanti scempie'. Type of articulation, whether reinforced (geminate) or non-reinforced (normal) becomes the deciding factor. Support for this presentation comes from Camilli (1947) and Belardi and Minissi (1962). The series of works propounding and expanding theories of double length or of a stop followed by the repetition of the same consonant is erroneous. (Notably Josselyn, 1900, Panconcelli-Calzia, 1911, and Porru, 1939.)

A table is composed of the relevant distinguishing features characterizing the phonemes of the Italian consonants. To the usual features is added the 'trait', degree of tension, producing values positive for reinforced articulation and zero or negative for normal articulation.

A chart of a consonant system for Italian containing thirty-eight elements displays the relationships, which are further illustrated by a word list showing examples. Phonemic transcription is improved by adopting |K| for reinforced |k| and |K| for the archiphoneme.

The length of a vowel preceding a stop is not affected by that stopped consonant. Thus fata and fatta are semantically distinguished by the degree of reinforcement of /T/. Continuants—no matter how exaggerated by lengthened utterance—are still distinguished by tension. Compare /tùfo/ with /tùFo/. The method could be applied to other languages including Latin.

LTA I 4 I4 209

# RUSSIAN

68–279 Вакауа, R. М. Опыт составления словаря минимума. [Experience of compiling a minimal dictionary.] Русский Язык за Рубенсом (Moscow), 1 (1967), 96–9.

A report on compiling a word-frequency dictionary for reading scientific and technical literature. Word-frequency lists are usually based on an analysis of a large corpus of material; this list, which contains approximately 3,500 words, is, however, based on nine others. [There is a discussion of the methods employed in the composition of the list in addition to an evaluation of its effectiveness.]

68-280 Friedrich, Wolf. Neues zur russischen Wortbetonung besonders in der Wortbildungslehre. [Fresh information on Russian stress especially in the theory of word-formation.]

Neuere Sprachen (Frankfurt am Main), 66, 12 (1967), 565-76.

The student of Russian striving for a practical command of the language faces two main problems: the formation and use of aspects and stress. That 80 or 90 per cent of all Russian words do not change their stress is cold comfort, since it is precisely the 'changeable' ones which occur most frequently.

Something must be said of the concept of 'Gesetzmäßigkeit'. The term is not used here in the sense of the sound laws of comparative linguistics, nor with the meaning 'laws that have no exceptions'. These 'laws' (Gesetzmäßigkeiten) exist if it can be determined statistically that nouns ending in 'n' are always stressed on the syllable terminating in 'n'.

Aids to the recognition of stressed syllables and stress systems must be made available. [As an addition to the discussion of this problem contained in Weltsprache Russisch, Grammatik, Max Hueber Verlag, Munich, 1965, and Idioma 3/66, ударение в русских существительных [Stress in Russian nouns] by E. Fouquet and W. Friedrich, the author presents a long list of words and discusses the stress systems they exhibit and the relationship between wordformation and stress.]

68-281 Friedrich, Wolf. Russische Neuwörter: Zusammensetzungen mit культ- und фото-. [Russian neologisms: compounds with культ- and фото-.] Russisch (Munich), 2, 1 (1968), 10-12.

Russian has produced a very large vocabulary during the Soviet era and although this has engaged the interest of Russian scholars it has not received comprehensive treatment in either monographs or dictionaries. Work on this problem is in progress in the Soviet Union and books which deal with Russian neologisms are published. Nevertheless students of Russian often cannot find these new words in reference works and a list is offered as practical help. [List of compounds formed with культ- and фото-.]

68-282 Ovsienko, Yu. G. Словарь наиболее употребительных слов русской разговорной речи. [Dictionary of the most frequently used words in Russian conversation.] Русский Язык за Рубенсом (Moscow), 1 (1967), 92-4.

Report on the work of compiling a list of the most frequently used words in Russian conversation. The team began collecting material, which takes the form of tape recordings of conversations on twenty-five carefully chosen topics, in autumn 1964. Some conversations were taken down in shorthand where recording on tape was impossible. From the total corpus of 400,000 words, a list of the most frequent 2,500 words will be made. These two figures were chosen to facilitate comparison with E. A. Steinfeldt's word count. [The author gives details of the informants' level of education, and the arrangement of the dictionary.] The work is to be completed by the end of 1967 or early 1968.

**68–283 Vorontsova, V. L.** Ударение в глаголах на -ировать. [Stress in verbs ending in '-irovat'.] *Руский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), 2 (1967), 82–5.

After sketching briefly the history of Russian verbs with the suffix -ировать, a comparatively new category of words which have be-

come increasingly common, the author turns to the problem of stress which can fall either on the first or last part of the suffix.

There is an opinion that the stressing of such verbs depends on the number of syllables in the verb. In a survey of dictionaries published since 1780, used as examples of standard literary Russian, the author shows this to be unsatisfactory. The more recently such verbs have been assimilated into Russian, the greater the tendency for the stress to fall on the first part of the suffix. Another more general factor is indicated: an accentual tradition which acts on a given group of words at a given time.

The tendency for verbs to be stressed on the first part of the suffix has spread to verbs which were earlier stressed on the last. The number of verbs in which there is some fluctuation is diminishing and of the fairly large group used in the literary language at the end of the eighteenth, during the nineteenth and at the beginning of the twentieth century, there are now only slightly more than twenty.

# SPANISH

68-284 Canfield, D. Lincoln. Trends in American Castilian. Hispania (Wisconsin), 50, 4 (1967), 912-18.

Fifty years ago procedures and outlook in Spanish linguistics were largely normative, rules were prescriptive, and it was felt that Latin Americans spoke a 'bad sort' of Castilian. Many investigators then began to describe Castilian diachronically and synchronically, and there resulted a number of studies in Spanish-English contrastive analysis. In recent years there has developed a more objective attitude towards the dialectal manifestations of Spanish. Extensive work has been done by Spaniards, Latin Americans, and North Americans. [The author gives an extensive list of scholars in each of these groups.]

The dialectal manifestations of Castilian are mutually intelligible, since they all emanate from Castilian Latin and through Andalusia. A large number of the early colonists between 1492 and 1650 were from Andalusia, and changes that were occurring in the south of Spain during the sixteenth century were taken to America.

There developed in America two types of Andalusian Spanish: (a) vice-regal, characteristic of Mexico, Peru, and the more inaccessible regions; (b) commercial, characteristic of Cuba and the more accessible coastal regions. In its evolution American Spanish has shown a structural conservatism but an inventiveness and picturesqueness in the semantic field. [The author illustrates with examples those distinctive features of American Spanish which have departed from Castilian usage.] So-called Americanisms are often popular Spanish forms of the period of the Conquest, and there is a general tendency to be hyperbolic and euphemistic.

The characteristics of American dialects do not correspond to geographical or political entities to the extent that has been believed. [The author examines in detail the phonological, syntactic and lexical divergencies of various Latin American countries.]

68–285 Douglass, R. Thomas. Gerundive and non-gerundive forms. *Hispania* (Wisconsin), 50, 1 (1967), 99–103.

The author analyses contrasting forms of the type canto/estoy cantando, cantaba/estaba cantando, canté/estuve cantando, etc., in relation to time concepts. A distinction is made throughout the study between what William Bull has called cyclic events (where an event implies a point of termination—closing a door) and non-cyclic events (where the characteristics of an event are observable at its initiation and the event can, in theory, be prolonged indefinitely—eating, crying, walking, moving).

The author concludes that: (1) corresponding gerundive and nongerundive forms are usually identical in aspect (i.e. relationship between an event and any given point in time), (2) use of the gerundive form, by its redundant indication of imperfectiveness, usually signals emphasis or restriction around the point of orientation, (3) interpretation depends on the nature of the event (cyclic or noncyclic), the verb used to describe it (transitive or intransitive), and the time (tense) involved.

68-286 Dowdle, Harold I. Observations on the uses of 'a' and 'de' in Spanish. *Hispania* (Wisconsin), 50, 2 (1967), 329-34.

Classification of twenty-five ways in which 'de' is used in conjunction with other words and eighteen ways in which 'a' is used. The Spanish phrases and idioms are classified according to usage especially in relation to their English translations, and examples illustrating the general statements are given in each of the forty-three short sections.

68-287 Fish, Gordon T. 'A' with Spanish direct object. *Hispania* (Wisconsin), 50, 1 (1967), 80-5.

A study is made of those factors that seem to determine whether or not the preposition 'a' is used with a direct object, animate and inanimate. Examples show that its use is not to avoid ambiguity, though it may facilitate exceptional word order. It discloses an affective reaction to something conspicuous in the clause. The use of the 'a' is examined, not only in relation to persons, animals, and objects, but also in relation to different kinds of verb and to various pronouns.

**68–288 Goicoechea, José M.** Some typical weather terms in Spanish. *Hispania* (Wisconsin), **50**, 3 (1967), 545–7.

The article reviews some of the diverse but characteristic terminology relating to the weather. The author defines the usage of such terms as tifón, tempestad, and tromba relating to storms; brisotes, pampero, solano, relating to winds; and such terms as barra del norte, rabos de gallo, aguacero, etc., relating to clouds.

68-289 Haensch, Günther. Der spanische Wortschatz unserer Zeit. [Contemporary Spanish vocabulary.] Neusprachliche Mitteilungen aus Wissenschaft und Praxis (Berlin), 20, 1 (1967), 19-21.

A survey is made of the changes that have come over the vocabulary of Spanish since the end of the Civil War.

The first range of neologisms are those created to meet the needs of the new political and social forms that emerged as a result of the change of regime. These are largely the product of adaptation, above all of semantic modification, of existing Spanish vocabulary. The other range of neologisms result from Spain's participation in the general economic and cultural life of the western world. They are most noticeable where material culture or organizational forms have most readily come into line with international fashion and standards: social relations, commerce, industry, advertising, fashion, entertainment and sport, mass media of communication, air travel, the hotel, catering and tourist industries, science and technology.

Much of the new terminology has been found from within the existing resources of Castilian Spanish with a preference for a certain range of syntactic configurations and for forming words with suffixes rather than prefixes. There are also a significant number of loan words and *calques* which, as may be expected, show above all the influence of anglicisms and americanisms and, to a lesser extent, that of French, German and Latin-American Spanish.

Syntactically and stylistically, there is a gulf between the rhetorical artificiality of the written forms of the language and the racy expressiveness of the spoken language which has influenced the style of a whole school of modern writers. The lexical changes, however, although significant, must be seen in perspective. They affect only a very small percentage of the total vocabulary of Spanish; the essential forms and spirit of the language remain the same.

68–290 Obaid, Antonio H. A sequence of tenses?—What sequence of tenses? *Hispania* (Wisconsin), 50, 1 (1967), 112–19.

The author argues against the contention that when the subjunctive is used in a dependent clause—be it noun, relative, or adverbial—the past subjunctive, or its corresponding pluperfect, must be used if the verb of the main clause is in the preterite, imperfect, or conditional. Authoritative and recent grammars contain categorical statements that the present subjunctive *never* follows a main verb in the preterite, imperfect, or conditional tense.

Examples from a number of Spanish American texts show that the present subjunctive is frequently used in such circumstances, except in 'if'-clauses. The use of the present subjunctive in the dependent clause, after a main verb in the past, increases as the degree of education of the speaker decreases. It is constantly heard in spoken language and found in journalistic writings. A present and future-from-now meaning is most common today.

The present subjunctive is gradually taking over certain functions which were the exclusive domain of the past subjunctive. It is now being used to express any future action from the point of view of the time of the main verb. This more frequent use of the present subjunctive is a relatively new evolution in the language.

Another recent phenomenon is the tendency to use a future indicative where a conditional would be the rule, and there is also a tendency to make less frequent use of the various tenses of the subjunctive.