Studies of particular languages

ENGLISH

69–196 Goyvaerts, D. L. Towards a theory of the expanded form in English. *Linguistique* (Paris), 2 (1968), 111–24.

Adopting a stratificational approach, the author discusses the use of the present continuous in English, with special reference to verbs which are sometimes listed as not occurring in the continuous form. He arrives at a classification into imperfective and perfective uses. The former, which may be momentary, extended or repeated, are subclassified into non-habitual, public, and profusive; the latter into habitual, private, and suffusive. Examples of each are given.

69–197 Healey, Alan. English idioms. *Kivung* (Boroko, Papua and New Guinea), 1, 2 (1968), 71–98.

Idioms present many problems in grammatical analysis, in lexicography and in language learning and teaching. Three possible tests to identify an idiom are: (1) removing or replacing its morphemes one at a time; if such a change does not destroy the idiomatic meaning of the expression, then the morpheme concerned is probably not part of the idiom; (2) having done (1), taking each component morpheme in turn and searching for other collocations in which it occurs with the same meaning as it appears to have in the possible idiom; (3) expanding or transforming the possible idiom in as many ways as are semantically and grammatically appropriate (e.g. *kin and kith, the bucket was kicked*).

The internal grammatical structure of an idiom gives us some pointers as to the syntactic contexts in which it may be used but these are not conclusive. Syntactic behaviour must be determined separately for each idiom and for English this has received little attention from grammarians and lexicographers. Only by examining

144

and classifying a large number and variety of idioms can the extent and nature of the differences between idiom syntax and ordinary English syntax be discussed.

[A classification of the commoner types of English idioms is presented under twenty headings, followed by a consideration of idioms as linguistic units, problems in dictionary making, and the learning and teaching of idioms.]

69–198 Hornby, A. S. Compound words in English. *Englisch* (Berlin), 4 (1968), 116–18.

There is no uniformity in the printing of many compounds nor is there a satisfactory definition of a compound, but for the foreign learner the problems are other than those of recognition and definition. He must consciously learn to associate patterns of meaning and patterns of stress. A pronouncing dictionary will indicate the stress on words but it cannot enter all possible collocations of words. Neither can there be hard and fast rules on these matters. By way of guidance a classification of ten groups of collocations is provided indicating stress.

69–199 Jacobson, Rodolfo. Inflectional and periphrastic genitives, *Journal of English as a Second Language* (New York), 3, 1 (1968), 29–47.

Genitives occur in nominal constructions, but not in compound nouns. Genitive inflexions and *of*-phrases are different devices signalling identical interrelations.

In classifying genitives, Curme distinguishes eight relationships, but does not separate syntax from semantics. Jespersen suggested five rules to determine whether a given genitive is subjective or objective. Structuralists have made little progress in analysing genitives. Thomas has made a valuable contribution.

'Partitive genitives' cannot be converted from the periphrastic to the inflectional form. Other genitive constructions may be viewed as transforms. The so-called partitive genitive is no genitive. Predicative

145

genitives are attributive to the noun with which they are associated. A kernel genitive is a nominalized kernel string. Predicative genitives are periphrastic, kernel genitives inflexional. Underlying syntactic relations can be specified only if deep structure is examined. [The author suggests a definition of a genitive relationship in English.]

The predeterminer (partitive genitive) should be taught as an expansion of the determiner system; the predicative genitive through sentence combination and transformation exercises: and the kernel genitive by means of nominalizing and embedding operations. [Examples given.] Further study is necessary.

69–200 **Le Page, R. B.** Intercomprehensibility between West Indian English and other forms of English. *Remedial Education* (Oxford), **3**, 3/4 (1968), 117–19.

A brief geographical and historical framework for West Indian English is given before a more detailed study of the linguistic characteristics of broad Creole English, developed out of a pidgin which in turn was the result of seventeenth-century English dialects being reinterpreted through the phonological, grammatical and semantic systems of West African languages. Immigrants are liable to be native speakers of a dialect which may represent any point between conservative Creole and educated West Indian. A chart of the comparative vowel systems of the major West Indian territories is given, comparing them with RP according to Gimson. Variants between West Indian and British English consonants are also illustrated. Four sample texts show the different grammatical, lexical and semantic forms in use in various territories.

69–201 **Sack, F. L.** English word-stress. *English Language Teaching* (London), **23**, 2 (1969), 141–4.

The author considers the stressing of English words, other than compounds. He deals with words with and without prefixes, words of two and three syllables, words with various endings, and long words, and claims that the rules he gives account for the stressing of over 80 per cent of simple words.

146

69–202 Sastri, Madugula I. Prepositions in 'Chemical Abstracts':
a sememic study. *Linguistics* (The Hague), 38 (1968), 42–51.

One hundred sentences from the metallurgical section of *Chemical
Abstracts* reveal that the prepositions *by*, *at*, *from*, *with*, *for*, *on*,
under, *in*, *to* and *of* show variety of meaning. [The meanings are
listed and illustrated.] The role played by prepositions in a metallurgi-
cal text can determine the meaning of the sentences, and the number
of concepts underlying some of the prepositions is increasing. In an
information-retrieval-oriented processing of any text the shades of
meaning of function words cannot be ignored.

69–203 Teyssier, J. Notes on the syntax of the adjective in modern
English. *Lingua* (Amsterdam), **20**, 3 (1968), 225–49.

The complex problem of the positional classification of adjectives in
modern English studied through the deep structure underlying
speech reveals the existence of an internal logic conditioning usage.
Interplay between normal and inverted order can be affected by stress
pattern, by intraposition (peculiar to attributive adjectives), by extra-
position (peculiar to predicative adjectives), and by juxtaposition
(which can produce elliptical utterances without any verb). The
surface structure of word order may not be able to reveal the whole
system of the functions of the English adjective, as the criterion of
linearity is necessarily a basic binary opposition between normal and
inverted order—that is, a *formal* difference—whereas functions
constitute an abstract system of *internal* differentiation. [A graphic
representation of the limiting trend of attributive adjectives and the
non-limiting trend peculiar to predicative adjectives (with the inter-
mediary position symbolizing the appositive function as in *things
English*) provides a clearer picture of the deeper structure of adjectival
functions.] This internal system is concealed by formal word patterns
because it belongs entirely to the 'significate'.

FRENCH

69–204 **Agron, P., J. Basdevant, C. Barton, M. Dany, T. Del-porte, J. L. Descamps, S. Faure, M.-T. Gaultier, M. Gobert, M. Lascar, J. Muller, A. Phal, G. Richard, C. Scrivener, R. Smali-Clement, F. Vidot.** Le français, langue des sciences et des techniques. [Scientific and technical French.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), 61 (1968).

This issue is devoted to a study of scientific language, the way in which it differs from everyday language, and the way in which linguistic research can contribute to the teaching of the language of specialisms. Articles on teaching methodology for scientific French consider the way in which audio-visual aids can be used in teaching for special purposes, the special syntax of science including the subjunctive in hypotheses, vocabulary building with Greek and Latin prepositions, common collocations in the language of economics, the vocabulary of civil engineering, the different levels of lexis and syntax needed by medical students—for talking to patients, discussing cases with colleagues (slang and abbreviations), and talking to tutors (formal terminology). [There is now in existence a course for medical students, *Voix et Images Médicales*.] Many overseas students face the double handicap of insufficient knowledge of French and insufficient preparatory knowledge of their particular scientific discipline. For biology, a series of graded exercises has been constructed to introduce both linguistic and scientific complexity. Special difficulties are encountered in the former French colonies of North Africa, where some Arab students receive six years of French teaching at school and some only four, having learnt Spanish as a second language. [A list of organizations concerned with documentation on scientific and technical subjects in French and a bibliography are appended.]

69–205 **Keith, George H.** 'Poisson de mer/eau de la mer': 'de' versus 'du' in noun-complement formation. *French Review* (Baltimore), **42**, 1 (1968), 74–9.

The inclusion or omission of the definite article in the subordinate part of noun-complement formations is a subject which is not dealt with satisfactorily in French grammars either for native speakers or for foreign students. Four types of construction are distinguished: (1) simple apposition of the type *Hôtel-Dieu*, (2) subordinated apposition of the type *le roman d'Adolphe*, (3) *the complément déterminatif d'objet*, in which the second noun would become the direct object of the verb which would result from the transformation of the first noun: *l'oubli des injures* (*oublier les injures*), (4) the standard *complément détérminatif*—illustrations show a variety of relationships and it is in this category that difficulties occur. An attempt is made to draw up the principles of usage by subdividing and illustrating the fourth category.

GERMAN

69–206 **David, Jean.** Accent de groupe et accent de mot en allemand. [Group accent and word accent in German.] *Acta Linguistica Hafniensia* (Copenhagen), **11**, 1 (1968), 1–30.

Moulton's thesis that it is impossible to establish a contrast between syntactical stress and primary stress is examined and compared with von Essen's and Isačenko's views that all German accent derives from certain accentual groups. [The author discusses the views of Moulton, von Essen and Isačenko on syntactical and word stress in German.] There is no functional reason for distinguishing between word stress and a higher stress in German. It is therefore better to abandon the notion of word stress. [The author defines his use of the term 'group accent' and proposes a description of the German accentual system based upon it.]

69–207 Good, Colin H. Anmerkungen zu einem terminologischen Thema und einer Regel. [Some observations on a termino-logical topic and a grammatical rule.] *Deutschunterricht für Ausländer* (Munich), **17**, 6 (1967), 161–4.

For the student of German the position of adverbs in the German sentence is a thorny problem. Most grammars are not very helpful, because they use inadequate terminology and give contradictory examples.

Stopp's grammar gives a straightforward rule, namely that adverbs of time come before those of manner, which, in turn, come before those of place. Unfortunately this is a misleading over-simplification. The author quotes two examples from Stopp, which, as he shows at the end of the article, mix up two distinctly different categories of adverbs. Behagel in his *Deutsche Syntax* singles out a group of what he calls 'necessary' and 'important' adverbs that come at the end of the sentence. Stolte's *Kurze Deutsche Grammatik* also mentions a special category of adverbs, namely those expressing direction or a state, that have a strong tendency to go to the end of the sentence. According to Curme's grammar certain adverbs of place are par-ticularly important and their position is at the end of the sentence.

However, all these attempts to analyse the problem and formulate a satisfactory rule are inadequate compared with the way in which Duden-Grammatik tackles the matter. Here the special kind of adverb whose position is fixed at the end of the sentence is termed complementary in order to express its close link with the verb; these adverbs are needed to complete the sentence. All other adverbs are characterized as free as far as their position is concerned, although the time–manner–place rule still applies loosely to them.

69–208 Kirch, Max S. The new German grammar. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **52**, 6 (1968), 345–9.

New attitudes towards grammar have affected the teaching of German to native speakers and foreigners. Weisgerber and his associates con-sider language not as something static but as a process. Although they

admit the importance of phonology, their primary concern is with meaning. They espouse a grammar based on content (*inhaltbezogene Grammatik*) rather than a grammar based on sound (*lautbezogene Grammatik*). The movement began as a reaction against the conceptions of the 'Young Grammarians' who, in their view, were too much concerned with the sounds and external form of the language. In this respect they also differentiate themselves from Bloomfield, who always stresses that form underlies meaning, and they are interested in syntax. Traditional parts of speech are rejected because they meet the needs of Greek and Latin grammar but are not appropriate for German.

In East Berlin another group of linguists, scholars of the Arbeitsstelle Strukturelle Grammatik, goes back to Herder, Humboldt and Saussure for inspiration but has added the concepts of transformational generative grammar.

As in the United States, new developments on a theoretical level of linguistics and grammar are reflected on a practical level in the schools and it is hoped that the German linguists' efforts at more precise identification and classification of grammatical concepts and groupings will provide an economical and comprehensive description of the German language which will enable better teaching of German.

ITALIAN

68–209   Leone, A. A proposito di un possibile sistema di accenti grafici. [On a possible system of written accents.] *Lingua Nostra* (Florence), **29**, 4 (1968), 110–16.

[A reprint has recently appeared of a work on *Italian Accentuation*, published twenty-two years ago, by Malagòli. It offers an interesting picture of the accentuation situation of 1946, and it is commented upon by Leone.]

For oxytone (and monosyllabic) words, and words in final tonic -*e* and -*o*, the question would seem to have been sensibly settled by the rules introduced by the *Ente per l'Unificazione Italiana* (U.N.I.) on accentuation, which reflect the basic and most correct daily usage.

Where the written accent is not yet obligatory on words other than oxytone, complications arise. Malagòli proposes a written accent for those stressed on the antepenultimate syllable, as Italian consists of predominantly penultimately stressed words. However, this also causes difficulties as the number of proparoxytone words is not so small as to provide a convenient list of exceptions, and in speech accents tend to slip back to antepenultimate syllables which would correctly be on the penultimate.

Malagòli suggests (*a*) considering not the syllable but the penultimate vowel in the establishment of accent rules; and (*b*) exceptionally, for nouns in *-ia*, *-io* (*-ua*, *-uo*), writing the accent not on the antepenultimate but on the penultimate vowel, since nouns with unaccented *-i* are more numerous and of fairly common usage.

Leone favours the use of the accent in cases of uncertainty of pronunciation, and since the printed word plays such an important part in the establishment of pronunciation habits, the choice must be left to the writer, who should be fully aware of his influential position. As well as being the distinctive feature in homonyms, the accent could also usefully obviate mispronunciation in hasty reading of syntactic structures. The use of accents would seem to be a wise step towards the establishment of correct pronunciation.

69–210 **Saronne, Edgardo T.** Per un'analisi semantico-strutturale dell'italiano: struttura sintattica, struttura semantica e contenuto nella determinazione della sinonimia e dell'ominimia degli enunciati. [Towards a semantic–structural analysis of Italian: syntactic structure, semantic structure and content in determining the synonymy and homonymy of statements.] *Lingua e Stile* (Bologna), **3**, 3 (1968), 259–69.

[The article examines the relationships between statements in Italian which are equivalent in content but different in structure, and statements identical in structure but semantically different; minimal variations in morphemes and lexemes occasion semantic differences which are difficult to explain at a theoretical level.]

In *Il Signor Rossi è proprietario di una casa/Il Signor Rossi ha una*

casa, the lexical factor in the morpheme *ha* is semantically capable of wider application and shows greater dependence on context to define content. Transformational grammar could be used for clarification.

In *Il Signor Rossi ha un asino/Il Signor Rossi è un asino*, the predicative monemes lie differently. With *ha*, *asino* does not correspond to Martinet's view of the 'object complement', and is in contrast with the syntax of other languages such as Egyptian Arabic and Russian. Analysis of paradigms of *avere* shows the difficulty of distinguishing between lexical and functional elements and of categorizing the 'object complement'. Italian sentences of apparently identical syntactic structure but of different semantic content are compared with equivalent expressions in Egyptian Arabic, Russian and English.

Ho una casa/Ho fame/Penso apparently differ in structure only in the order of their monemes, but varying combinations and attempts to isolate the different elements of function, modality, etc., reveal that identical semantic content can be expressed with different syntactic structure only by means of different monemes. The same monemes with different structure correspond to different semantic content.

[The author tabulates his conclusions on the basis that semantic structure must be distinguished from semantic content, and syntactic homonyms from syntactic synonyms. These are defined and the limitations of the classification stated in view of the role of lexemes.]

RUSSIAN *See also abstract* 69–279.

69–211 **Krabbe, Gerhard.** Über die Funktion der 'bedeutungs-leeren' Präfixe bei der Aspektbildung. [The function of the 'grammatical' prefix in the formation of aspect.] *Fremd-sprachenunterricht* (Berlin), **12**, 9 (1968), 389–91.

There are two kinds of prefix for verbs in Russian. The first, so-called lexical prefix, not only changes the verb into the perfective but also changes its meaning. The other, so-called grammatical prefix only changes the verb into a perfective. Isačenko feels that a verb without a prefix is more vague in its meaning. (Comparison with the German language shows the same to be true.) Some prefixes will completely

alter the meaning of the verb while others will merely effect a slight
change in the basic meaning. Isačenko points out that the imperfective
verbs are not the aspectual partners of the perfective verbs although
he speaks of these perfective verbs not as independent verbal lexemes
but as forms of action.

In a large number of pairs of perfective verbs, one is always prefixed
by the preposition *c*, and an additional shade of meaning can almost
always be seen in the verb with *c*. Verbs prefixed by *c* may be divided
into four groups: (1) indicating that an action occurs only once or the
result of such an action, (2) indicating the negative aspect of an action
occurring only once, (3) indicating motion outward and back, (4) indi-
cating the result of an action. Additional examples show that the
perfective verbs in all these groups differ semantically from the root
verb. Misleading information resulting from 'aspect pairs' where a
grammatical prefix is involved sometimes occurs in otherwise reliable
dictionaries.

69–212 Vasil'eva, A. N. Глагол в разговорной речи: (1)
Инфинитив. [The verb in conversational speech: (1) the
infinitive.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), 3 (1968),
24–30.

Omission of certain modal words has generated a variety of forms of
expression which employ the infinitive construction in conversational
Russian.

Four main categories are discernible with respect to the function
of the infinitive construction when it is syntactically independent.
These are the high incidence of the use of the predicative phrases with
modal force; of ellipses, particularly the omission of auxiliary verbs
and modal words; of intonation as a structural element in defining
meaning; and of particles, often supplementing the role of intonation
and adding modal or semantic nuances.

[Under each of these categories, subdivisions are discussed, all of
which are fully documented with examples, and there is an appendix
of exercises.]

SPANISH

69–213 Schmidely, Jack. Les 'temps' de l'indicatif espagnol. [Time and tense in the Spanish indicative.] *Langues Modernes* (Paris), **62**, 6 (1968), 716–28.

Time and tense are closely related to movement from the future to the past and, more particularly, to the concept of *cinétisme descendant* as defined in the works of Guillaume. This concept is exemplified in the composition of nouns: *creador, creación, criatura*; and adjectives: *impresionable, impresionante, impresionado*. In the verb it can find its means of expression in lexical terms: *voy a, estoy para*, plus infinitive, or in the verbal system itself: *cantar, cantando, cantado* with the various forms of *haber*.

Following Benveniste's ideas, a viewpoint in time must be established. This is the moment when the speaker speaks and determines the present. The speaker's temporal organization is constructed from his own position in time, and past and future are viewed from this position. The present indicative, therefore, derives from (1) the *cinétisme descendant* inherent in time itself, and (2) the organization of the speaking subject. The present is that moment in which a fragment of the future is converted into a fragment of the past. The present is the point of transition. The absolute present does not have real existence, but the linguistic present does and it expresses the contemporaneity between the event and the moment when it is described. Future and past exist only in relation to the present.

There are two kinds of past tense. The preterite and perfect express a rupture with the present. The imperfect is relative to the present and expresses the contemporaneity of the process just as the present marks coincidence of event and moment of speaking. A historian of the 1914–18 war might say *fue una guerra horrible*, but an army veteran *era una guerra horrible*, because he is now reliving the past. There are two kinds of future tense. The normal future does not coincide with the present and needs no support for its existence. It expresses probability. The conditional tense, however, expresses uncertainty and requires external support. It includes the conditional *escribiría* and the forms *-iese* and *-iera*.

A careful distinction needs to be made between *aspect*, resulting from the action of time from the inside of the process and involving the *cinétisme* of time, and *time*, by which a process is localized by the speaker. A diagram for tense analysis follows.

69–214   Steel, Brian. Observaciones sobre el uso periodístico de los afijos adjetivales en los grupos nominales. [Remarks on the journalistic usage of adjectival affixes in noun groups.] *Español Actual* (Madrid), 12 (1968). 1–6.

[Study and classification of both prefixes and suffixes, giving several examples and indicating which forms are frequently used in journalistic style as compared with colloquial speech and literary writings.]

Various combinations of elements within the nominal group are analysed in order to rationalize the tendencies which are shaping the language of *ABC* and *España Semanal*. The combination of noun and derived adjective seems to be one of the most common forms of journalese. The contractions of *de + noun* and *que + clause* are carefully considered.

The following conclusions are arrived at. (1) Affixes offer a solution to the growing complexity of modern terminology. (2) Such use of affixes will have repercussions on the spoken language. (3) By using affixes one does not need to adopt procedures alien to the character of Spanish. (4) Use of the affix gives greater flexibility for increasing vocabulary and creating nominal groups which reflect the complexities of modern life.