

## *Studies of particular languages*

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### ENGLISH

- 71-288 Castelo, Lutgarda M.** Filipino – English bilingualism. *Zeitschrift für Phonetik, Sprachwissenschaft und Kommunikationsforschung* (Berlin), **23**, 2/3 (1970), 129–37.

Since language is a system of oppositions, a language learner often resorts to a partial identification of the two language systems to reduce his language burden. The identifications may be at the root of many forms of interference. [Several findings on bilingualism by Weinreich, Schleicher, Fries and Jespersen are quoted.] The principle of interference on the grammatical level is explained here with samples from the verb systems of English and Tagalog.

**420 AFG 499.211**

- 71-289 Hoard, James E.** Aspiration, tenseness and syllabication in English. *Language* (Baltimore, Md), **47**, 1 (1971), 133–40.

English aspiration in initial and medial position is shown to be part of a larger phenomenon of tense and lax consonant alternations. These phenomena can be given a unified explanation in terms of a few rules for syllabication. The rules are simple but condition a wide range of phonetic manifestations. [Examples.]

**420 AJ**

- 71-290 Kirsten, Hans.** Some und any. ['Some' and 'any'.] *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin), **2** (1971), 85–9.

Among the numerous words in English that denote an indefinite amount or number *some* and *any* at first glance seem to be less difficult to use correctly than others. Most grammar books state that *some* is used in affirmative sentences whereas *any* is found in negative sentences and questions. This simple rule was questioned several decades ago. Recent research by L. A. Hill and R. Lakoff has con-

firmed the earlier findings. Lakoff demonstrates that the attitude of the speaker is decisive for the use of *some* and *any*. [Examples and detailed explanation by Lakoff quoted.]

There have been many attempts to find a rule to express the relationship of *some* and *any*. Linking *some* with certainty and *any* with doubt and negation is only of limited value. Another explanation, that *some* expresses something existing, something concrete or real, and *any* something imagined or potential is not convincing either. The definition by W. E. Collinson that *some* particularizes without specifying whereas *any* generalizes and expresses indifference of choice is nearer to the truth.

The author elaborates this definition, provides numerous examples as illustrations and shows how previous rules, now regarded as erroneous, on the use of *some* and *any* were derived from secondary phenomena, such as the kind of sentence in which particularizing and generalizing commonly occurs.

420 AK

**71-291 Monsen, Thomas.** 'Static' and 'dynamic' have. *Språk og Språkundervisning* (Oslo), 7, 1 (1971), 2-8.

*Have* followed by a nominal phrase can be used either as an auxiliary or as a finite verb with special meaning. F. T. Wood has described these differences as 'static' and 'dynamic'. [The author quotes Wood's arguments but finds some inconsistencies in his reasoning. He underlines these and gives further examples.] In a later article the questions of why *have* in present and past perfect forms is always 'static' and 'causative' *have* is always dynamic will be considered.

420 AK

**71-292 Sacks, Norman P.** English 'very', French 'très', and Spanish 'muy': a structural comparison and its significance for bilingual lexicography. *PMLA* (New York), 86, 2 (1971), 190-201.

The traditional treatment of the adverb has posed problems of classification in the three languages under consideration. English *very*

## STUDIES OF PARTICULAR LANGUAGES

has traditionally been classified as an adverb, and the efforts of structural linguists to reclassify it as an intensifier may be extended to French *très* and Spanish *muy* as well. However, the three intensifiers do not pattern in the same way, for *very* patterns with adjectives and adverbs, but not with verbs or nouns; *très* and *muy* pattern with adjectives, adverbs, nouns, and with the past participle of verbs. The patterning of *très* and *muy* with nouns raises the question of the basis for differentiating adjectives from nouns. While the distinction between these two form classes in English is sometimes arbitrary, the line separating them is even less clear-cut in French and Spanish, languages in which nominalization is more widespread than in English. The unsatisfactory treatment of the three intensifiers in bilingual dictionaries of the French-English and Spanish-English type is due to the failure of lexicographers to link illustrative phrases and sentences to relevant structural features of the languages concerned, a practice all too common in dictionaries not compiled in accordance with scientific principles of lexicography. [Author's summary reprinted with the kind permission of the author and the editor of *PMLA*.]

420 440 460 AK ALG

**FRENCH** *See also abstracts 71-282, -292*

**71-293 Gaatone, David.** Règles phonétiques et morphologie du français. [Phonetic rules and the morphology of French.] *IRAL* (Heidelberg), 8, 4 (1970), 321-32.

Morphological descriptions of French need to distinguish between phenomena which really belong to morphology and phenomena which result from phonetic laws. Often these are confused and the resulting descriptions are unclear. Points covered here are the change from [e] to [ɛ] in words such as *opérer*, the change from [ə] to [ɛ] in such words as *geler*; the change from [œ] to [ø] with *œuf*, and [o] to [ɔ] in *idiote* and others. A yod appears in some words [*bruit-bruyant*] not always developing from [i] and one phonological rule for the appearance of yod can explain phenomena needing complex morphological explanation.

440 AJ AK

- 71-294 Journoud, Sylvain.** Déclin du subjonctif. [Decline of the subjunctive.] *French Review* (Baltimore, Md) **44**, 3 (1971), 549-51.

The subjunctive is not used less in contemporary writing but it is used unshurely, appearing after phrases such as *après que...* while the conditional is found after *bien que...*, and other expressions where formerly only the subjunctive was possible. This seems to be more a matter of psychology than of euphony. The subjunctive is the mood of hypothesis, of thought and feeling rather than action. Present-day society is interested in action. Slogans and mass-media encourage people to think collectively and not to add any personal interpretation. Hence the dominance of the indicative in the language. The imperative is also suffering a similar decline in favour of the indicative in speech.

440 AK

**GERMAN** *See also abstract 71-278*

- 71-295 Bach, E. and Robert D. King.** Umlaut in modern German. *Glossa* (Burnaby BC), **4**, 1 (1970), 3-21.

The historical background to the umlaut can be described by purely phonological rules but in modern standard German the situation is no longer simple. There are plural doublets from nouns such as *Druck*, and suffixes such as *-isch* and *-lich*, which only sometimes entail an umlaut. The treatment of the umlaut by Arnold Zwicky is compared with the authors' own thesis and the questions which arise in attempting to choose between a morphological and a phonological rule are considered.

430 AJS AKD

- 71-296 De Cort, J.** Das Deutsche Futur I – eine Übersicht. Seine Funktionen in der gesprochenen Gegenwartssprache. [The German future tense I – a general view. Its uses in contemporary spoken language.] *Linguistica Antverpiensia* (Antwerp), **4** (1970), 49-71.

In large descriptive grammars reference is always made to the verbal form with *werden* + infinitive and its passive form, which is then

## STUDIES OF PARTICULAR LANGUAGES

defined functionally. There is general agreement that the future tense is very little used today. Any functional description would imply both a modal and a temporal function. The future can be replaced when either the written context or the speech situation shows clearly that an action has not yet begun at the time of speaking. [Semantic and grammatical studies carried out recently on the future are quoted.] The use of the future in contemporary speech has not yet been fully investigated and indeed the collecting of suitable material for such study is one of the greatest problems. The only useful collection so far made is that of Professor Zwirner in the *Deutsche Spracharchiv* in Münster. Twenty-eight of these recordings were studied for examples of the use of the tenses. The tape numbers are listed in an appendix and the results shown diagrammatically. In conclusion the hypothesis is put forward that *wollen* is replacing *werden* to express the future.

430 AK

**71-297 Koerner, E. F. K.** Notes on the semantics of technical terms in the description of the varieties of contemporary German. *German Quarterly* (Appleton, Wisconsin), **44**, 1 (1971), 1-23.

An attempt is made to elucidate the terminology employed in the characterization of different kinds of modern German speech. Although terms used to characterize spoken English or French are usually inappropriate for German, they may nevertheless serve to elucidate the semantics of an expression used for a linguistic feature found in German by their apparent contrast or their possible similarity. No attempt is made to list all the terms employed in the analysis of language varieties but the selection should illustrate the difficulties in defining the terms in question.

430 ADF ALD

**71-298 Swenson, Rodney.** A vocabulary frequency count: based on three leading West German newspapers. *Unterrichtspraxis: for the teaching of German* (Philadelphia, Pa), **3**, 2 (1970), 22-32.

The objectives of foreign-language teaching have changed since the early frequency counts and word lists were drawn up. Previous

counts in German have been based primarily on the written word, drawn from literature. The present study is based on *Die Welt*, *Süddeutsche Zeitung* and *Frankfurter Allgemeine*. The three newspapers are directed towards a fairly well educated audience and represent a broad geographical distribution. The sample taken extended over four months, from October 1964 to January 1965. [The most frequently used 1,506 words are printed at the end of the article.] Many words occurred very few times but with the 1,506 words listed a language learner would be able to understand a considerable amount of the contemporary German language. **430 ALD**

**71-299 Widén, Pertti.** Das Präteritum in der deutschen Gegenwartssprache. [The preterite in present-day German.] *Linguistik und Didaktik* (Munich), 1, 4 (1970), 283-7.

There is little information available in grammar books on the problem of whether the preterite in German should be expressed by the imperfect tense or the present perfect, and even native speakers find this a difficult matter to decide.

Linguistic research has established that in South German dialects only the perfect is used, that in everyday spoken German the perfect predominates and that in written language the imperfect is more common. The imperfect tense is used for factual accounts, while the present perfect tends to convey a personal judgement by the speaker. However, instead of being examined in grammatical categories of tense and mood the problem should be seen in a larger socio-linguistic context of communication, taking into account the reaction to what is said. [Examples given.]

Sometimes the choice of imperfect or present perfect is motivated by stylistic reasons. [Examples given.] In some cases the two tenses will convey different shades of meaning according to the social and dialectal background of the speakers. The use of the perfect tense and the subjunctive to express a personal commentary in a statement are examined in terms of transformational grammar. A few of the special difficulties of Finns learning German are also noted. **430 AK**

## STUDIES OF PARTICULAR LANGUAGES

### ITALIAN *See also abstract 71–282*

**71–300 Aliberti, Domenico B.** 'Lei', 'la' e il problema della concordanza. ['Lei', 'la' and the problem of adjectival agreement.] *Italica* (New York), **48**, 1 (1971), 71–92.

[Articles and comments on the use of the polite form of address are first reviewed.] Fifty native speakers, representative of both sexes, of all ages and of different regions of Italy were asked to complete blank spaces in a specimen conversation between imaginary men who address each other cordially but with formal courtesy. Percentages were calculated which show that only a small minority of speakers would make adjectives and participles feminine to agree with *lei* when it refers to a man. However, a majority made such words feminine to agree with *l'* or *la* (direct object form of *lei*) when it refers to a man. A subsequent count of examples in modern Italian periodicals showed that such practice is general among authors writing dialogues.

It is current practice for an honorific title to attract the agreement in gender of adjectives dependent on it, according to the grammatical gender of the noun used (*Eccellenza*, *Onorevole*) and throughout the sentence in which it occurs. Very occasionally a man is referred to in the direct object form by *lo*, this being indicative of self-confidence on the part of the speaker.

**450 AKD**

### RUSSIAN

**71–301 Bakharev, N. E.** Заголовку – однозначность. [One meaning for the headline] *Русская речь* (Moscow), 6 (1970), 60–2.

Frequent use is made in the Soviet press of headlines, omitting the verb, of the type *хлеб – родине*. The components of such headlines are normally nouns. Headlines in which the first component is in the nominative or accusative and the second is in the dative case are frequently ambiguous. [Two groups of examples are compared.] To determine which is the first part of the sentence and what case the noun is in, it is necessary to compare this sentence with others of similar structure and function. Sentences in the first group are close

to mononuclear infinitive sentences or definite personal sentences. They express demand or appeal and have exclamatory intonation. In infinitive sentences the nominative case is impossible; thus the first elements of the sentences in group 1 are all in the accusative case. This conclusion is borne out by examples in which the components' accusative form is not identical with the nominative. Sentences in the second group do not express demand or appeal, but are a statement of fact. They correspond to binomial sentences and the first element is normally in the nominative case. In some cases the problem of ambiguity is solved by the use of animate masculine nouns and feminine plural nouns as the first element, since they have different forms for the accusative. Others are open to at least two interpretations and the author regrets that greater efforts are not made to avoid ambiguity.

491.7 ALD AWJ

**71-302 Fursenko, D. I.** Порядок слов как одно из средств выражения неопределенности/определенности имен существительных. [Word order as one of the means of expressing indefiniteness/definiteness of nouns.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), 4 (1970), 68-72.

From observations made during his examination of a large sample of sentences taken from recent Russian literature, the author puts forward the thesis that the category of definiteness/indefiniteness in Russian is largely expressed through word-order. Lexical means of expressing this category, i.e. the demonstrative and indefinite pronouns *этот, один, etc.*, much discussed in the recent literature, are merely concomitant elements.

There are elements, for instance prepositions, which have a fixed position in Russian. There are others, however, which have no fixed position. Nevertheless, their position is not completely free and is determined by two sets of complex factors, which are discussed at length. This study lists its results in detail and illustrates them fully with examples, but is restricted to animate nouns which are the subjects of the sentences in the sample. Context is taken into account.

491.7 AKN



- 71-303 Gabuchan, K. V.** Инфинитивные предложения с отрицанием. [Negated infinitive sentences.] *Русская речь* (Moscow), 4 (1970), 66-8.

Sentences like *ему не спать*, etc., are usually called negated infinitive sentences and express different types of modality which are difficult to delimit. When seen in context, it is clear that these sentences express impossibility, inevitability, etc. Out of context it is often quite impossible to determine which of these meanings they express, as in, for example, *ему не читать*. The meaning of the sentence *ему не прочитать* is, however, quite clear. But does the difference between these sentences lie only in the presence of an imperfective verb in the one and a perfective verb in the other? In the first, *ему не читать*, the negative particle (and only that element) is not essential. *Ему читать* is possible and sentences of this type are commonly found in contemporary Russian. Grammatically the two sentences *ему не читать* and *ему читать* are identical; with the exception of the notion of negation, they are also identical semantically. In longer sentences of this type, the negative particle *не* may precede any element. [Examples.] In the second type of sentence, *ему не прочитать*, the negative particle *не* may not be omitted, and its position before the negative verb is fixed. There are, in other words, no sentences in contemporary Russian of the type *ему прочитать* expressing modality of the sort under discussion. [The author lists two groups of sentences representing the two types discussed above. Sentences of these two types are therefore different in meaning and grammatical structure.]

**491.7 АК**

- 71-304 Muzychenko, A. S.** Русские имена в XX веке. [Russian first names in the twentieth century.] *Русская речь* (Moscow), 6 (1970), 51-5.

In this report of the study of Russian given names being conducted at the Penza Pedagogical Institute, the author discusses five important aspects of the work: (1) the compilation of a register of first names in use at the present time in Russia, (2) comparison of the incidence of

individual names in town and country districts in particular years, (3) fashion in names and changes in popularity in towns and villages in the Penza district in the twentieth century, (4) the incidence of diminutive forms, which have particular emotional overtones in the Russian literary language and popular dialects, (5) the establishment of individual names and family names within certain social groups in pre-revolutionary Russia.

This study is based on an examination of a selection of the official registers of population for 1907, 1917, 1927, 1937, 1947, 1957 and 1967 in Penza.

491.7 ALD

**71-305 Veselov, P. V.** Служебное слово. [Syntax in official correspondence.] *Русская речь* (Moscow), 4 (1970), 53-8.

Mechanization of administration has imposed a demand for conciseness in official correspondence with the result that standardization in format and, particularly, expression has become more essential than formerly.

An analysis of various types of business letter reveals the formal aspects common to each type and a statistical count made on one type – letters of guarantee – points to the sharp contrast observable in frequencies of word and phrase usage. A certain repetition is noticed, for example, in the use of conjunctive and adverbial phrases expressing cause–result relationships in these letters. [Examples of such letters conveying a warning and proposed action are included.] Since certain standardized expressions occur more frequently than others, it is more justifiable to treat standardized syntactic models than standardized phrases, since the former can embrace the maximal number of real-life situations. [An example shows how a certain syntactic construction may serve as a model for letters of guarantee.]

As business letters must also express the social relationships existing between the correspondents themselves, as distinct from their attitudes towards a general social code, a list of traditional formulae of politeness is insufficient. Syntactic models should make

## STUDIES OF PARTICULAR LANGUAGES

clear to correspondents how to discriminate in the use of voice – the passive is often less sharp in tone than the active – and how to manipulate, for example, the use of modals.

491.7 AKN

**71–306 Vorob'eva, G. F.** Выражение условия в простом предложении (научный и разговорный стили). [Expression of condition in the simple sentence (technical and conversational styles).] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), 1 (1971), 45–9.

Foreign students of Russian often overwork the word *если* in expressing condition. Native speakers more frequently employ the prepositions *при*, *без*, *в случае* and *в зависимости от* with nouns for this purpose.

The first, *при*, expresses actions and states governed by physical laws. It points to the need for a particular condition in order that a certain result may ensue, whereas *без*, being its antonym, denotes the absence of someone or something, and is frequently encountered in conjunction with the negative and the conditional mood. Both prepositions have abstract and concrete uses. With *в случае* the idea of supposition is emphasized. It often refers to the future and is usually found with the imperative. In technical terminology its use parallels that of *при* (since it loses its basic semantic value). All three prepositions are found in conversational style also.

The last, *в зависимости от*, stands apart from the other three in that it cannot be replaced by *если*. In technical style, it refers to a change in activity or to the classification of phenomena and is thus commonly used with verbs signifying variance or subdivision. Five tables illustrate the conversion of simple sentences with the three first prepositions into complex sentences using *если* and a sixth table summarizes the uses of the four items.

491.7 AK

**SPANISH** See abstract 71–292