Studies of particular languages

ENGLISH

70–291 Aarts, F. G. A. M. On the use of the progressive and non-progressive present with future reference in present-day English. *English Studies* (Amsterdam), **50**, 6 (1969), 565–79.

Futurity can be signalled in English in a great variety of ways. [Aarts reviews previous statements concerning the progressive and non-progressive present with future reference.] There is considerable agreement among authors who have dealt with this topic, but to define the conditions that cause a speaker to choose the one form rather than the other would call for a detailed study. The importance of context of situation has been overlooked. Elements within the sentence depend on one another. The subject is not a factor making the use of the simple or progressive future present unacceptable.

The adverbial element often 'specifies' the tense, so that both work together (as Crystal has shown) to produce a time-relationship. This does not mean that an adverbial need occur in the same sentence. The adverbial specification may not be explicit.

In many traditional approaches it is assumed that the verb is the only element determining the grammaticality of sentences which use the progressive or non-progressive present, and that verbs occurring in such sentences constitute a limited class of verbs having common semantic features, but on the whole grammarians have been reluctant to commit themselves on the latter point. Most of such verbs are 'process' verbs (Joos's term), but some process verbs cannot signal futurity in the present tense and Joos's classification into process and status verbs does not cover all verbs.

Simple and progressive present with future reference are part of a multi-member system signalling futurity. Future reference of the present tense is possible, in certain contexts, with the majority of English verbs.

70–292 Agrawal, Mamta and D. P. L. Dry. A classification of English verbs. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 2 (1970), 138–46.

The authors explain the lines on which they have classified English irregular verbs and what they have omitted. They analyse the behaviour of weak verbs first, and then give a classified list of strong verbs and verb variants.

70–293 Celce, Marianne. The duality of collective nouns. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 2 (1970), 164–9.

Most collective nouns share the characteristic of numerical duality. At sentence level there is no overt number indication, with the simple past or modal auxiliaries, for collective subject nouns. Anaphoric expressions—referring back to previous collective nouns—sometimes give a clue to the writer's intention. American and British writers' choice of singular or plural do not always coincide.

There are three types of collective noun: non-generic particularizing, unique or proper, and generic. There are also some adjectivally derived nouns (*the rich*) that may be considered generic collectives.

70–294 Hirtle, W. H. -Ed adjectives like 'verandahed' and 'blue-eyed'. *Journal of Linguistics* (London), **6**, 1 (1970), 19–35.

The author discusses the relationship between the suffix of such adjectives and the suffix of the past participle, the conditions governing the use as adjectives of what are normally substantives, the conditions that permit a bare *-ed* adjective in some contexts but require a modified one (e.g. *red-headed*) in others, and the problem of the choice of adjectival or adverbial modifier of *-ed* adjectives. He bases his observations on Guillaume's theory of psychomechanics.

70–295   King, Harold V. Punctual versus durative as covert categories. *Language Learning* (Michigan), **19**, 3/4 (1969), 183–90.

Verb expressions in English are of two kinds: punctual and durative. Quoting from Poutsma, Sweet, Joos, and Twaddel, the writer discusses their use in association with time adverbs, tense signs, and auxiliaries. The semantic and syntactic restrictions can be described in terms of either lexical features or covert categories. Punctualness and durativeness are best discussed within the framework of Whorf's theory of grammatical categories.

70–296   Quirk, Randolph. English today: a world view. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington DC), **3**, 1 (1969), 23–9.

English is taught as a second language today not only to the inhabitants of foreign countries but also to immigrants into Britain, the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa, and for these special groups within English-speaking countries a world view is relevant. It is difficult to define 'standard' English. We need to know whether the measures of non-standard English are linguistic or sociological. Varieties of performance in a language seem to have three dimensions: similarity, adequacy and prestige. We know little about the prestige dimension and of its relation with the others and work in teaching English as a second 'dialect' will be vitiated unless our understanding improves. The problems of the formal description of a single variety of institutionalized standard English are daunting and in addition to these there are the problems inherent in English as a living, changing and imperfect language. [Examples of constructions difficult to explain to foreign learners.] There are still some great unresolved problems at the core of English grammar. Attempts to solve these, following the lead given by Chomsky, are throwing light beyond the confines of English grammar to the nature of linguistic relations in general. Much that needs to be taught we still do not consciously understand. The collaboration of psychologists, sociologists and those with experience of English in other societies and continents is needed.

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70–297 Sloat, Clarence. Proper nouns in English. *Language* (Baltimore, Md), **45**, 1 (1969), 26–30.

Many capitalized nouns (such as *Kodak*) are trade and household names, not members of the syntactically definable class of proper nouns but treated as common mass nouns. The use of article and of plural form with nouns is considered. It is suggested that it is unfruitful to contrast proper nouns with the entire class of common nouns as regards selection of determiners, but comparison of proper nouns with mass common nouns reveals a distinction in determiner selection. Proper nouns are freely pluralizable. They are special in the countable noun class only inasmuch as they require the zero allomorph of the definite article in the singular when it is not stressed, and when they are not preceded by a restrictive adjective or followed by a restrictive relative clause. [Examples.]

70–298 Takahaski, George. Perception of space and the function of certain English prepositions. *Language Learning* (Michigan), **19**, 3/4 (1969), 217–34.

The author examines the logical base for the usage of the prepositions *at*, *to*, *on*, and *in*. They reflect the way in which English speakers perceive space. *At* indicates the points of place, time, motion, and thoughts; *to* the perceptual or conceptual line connecting two points; *on* the surface where the meaning of the verb is manifested; *in* the space enclosed by a three-dimensional body. The author considers the relationship of the visual perception of space to the meaning of these prepositions and concludes that their occurrences are neither illogical nor random.

70–299 Whitaker, S. F. 'Unless'. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 2 (1970), 154–60.

The author discusses the meaning of *unless* and gives examples where *unless* cannot be replaced by *if...not*, and vice versa. The main uses of *unless* are (1) in after-thoughts cancelling a previous assertion,

(2) in a type of exhortation, (3) to indicate 'the only way out', (4) in sole contra-indications, = *except if*. The clearest contexts should be presented to students first. Contrastive illustrations are liable to confuse. The approximate equation with *except if* should enable a learner to find his way through more complicated sentences containing confusing negatives.

70–300 Zamudio, Mario C. On defining the phrasal verb—its grammatical structure and its recognition. *Revista de Lingüística Aplicada* (University of Concepción), **7** (1969), 32–42.

[The article summarizes the treatment of phrasal verbs by various grammarians. It is based on graphic, not phonic, material and factors such as stress and intonation, which are helpful in identifying phrasal verbs, are therefore not taken into consideration. Examples.]

FRENCH

70–301 Bourgeacq, Jacques A. 'Moi, je' ou 'C'est moi qui'. *French Review* (Baltimore, Md), **43**, 3 (1970), 452–8.

One has to explain the apparently clumsy forms *moi, je* and *c'est moi qui* to a foreign student. English, functioning objectively, can lay stress on an important word in passing. French, which is more subjective and analytic, must rearrange the words of a sentence in a new order of importance. As to meaning, exclusiveness can be introduced by *c'est moi qui* (I and I alone) whereas *moi, je* would be used only for emphasis.

70–302 Grafström, Åke. 'On' remplaçant 'nous' en français. ['On' replacing 'nous' in French.] *Revue de Linguistique Romane* (Strasbourg), **33**, 131/2 (1969), 270–98.

It is well known that colloquial French frequently uses *on* instead of *nous*. [Examples from recent grammars and dictionaries.] *On* can

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also carry self-effacing overtones. If its use is combined with *nous* it is considered vulgar. It is sometimes found replacing other subject personal pronouns. The phenomenon is still found in the spoken language only but is readily used by young people. The two world wars increased the use of slang in speech and narrowed the gap between vulgar and normal colloquial speech. [Regional usage of *on* for *nous* is noted in central and west France and in Switzerland, Belgium and Canada.] Some historical evidence is given for earlier usage of the form. Grammatical economy may have played some part in the use of *on* as there is no change in the verb ending as with *nous* and *vous*. Less effort of articulation is required with *on*. With reflexive verbs one is spared the repetition of *nous* There appears therefore to be a grammatical reason for this substitution in the disequilibrium of the French verb. No single explanation for the phenomenon is valid. [Bibliography.]

70–303 Tutescu, Mariana. Le type nominal 'ce fripon de valet'. [The nominal type 'that wretch of a servant'.] *Revue de Linguistique Romane* (Strasbourg), **33**, 131/2 (1969), 270–98.

Among varieties of romance syntax, constructions such as *ce fripon de valet* have a special place. Several explanations are examined and a new description is attempted of this very common construction in French in terms of both structural linguistics and transformational-generative grammar. Frequently pejorative or other emotional overtones can be noted when this construction is used in preference to a straightforward adjectival description.

GERMAN

70–304 Korlén, Gustav. Führt die Teilung Deutschlands zur Sprachspaltung? [Is the partition of Germany resulting in two separate languages?] *Deutschunterricht* (Stuttgart), **21**, 5 (1969), 5–23.

The question of whether there are two languages in Germany is an

alarming one. But in reality there are dozens of languages. Throughout the history of the German speaking peoples—including those of Austria and Switzerland—the language has consisted of many strata, inadequately described as 'dialect', 'everyday language' and 'High German'. The specifically Eastern form of the language, due to the political situation, is no more surprising than Austrian German.

Anglo-American has an enormous influence on the development of German in the West, and influences the East to a lesser degree. Foreign words and expressions have been adopted, and German words acquire new associations. Politicians' language is influential, but official and common usages differ widely. General trends in current German are freedom in positioning of verbs and the disappearance of the subjunctive.

Literature in the East sometimes contains political jargon unknown in the West, but lyric poetry and novels are still of a universal nature.

70–305 Müller, Wolfgang. Deutsche Bedeutungswörterbücher der Gegenwart. [Present-day German dictionaries.] *Deutsch für Ausländer* (Königswinter), special issue 11 (1970), 1–16.

[The article gives a critical overview of a number of German monolingual dictionaries currently on the market, noting the principles on which they are compiled, the layout and coverage of definitions.]

70–306 Steger, Hugo. Über Dokumentation und Analyse gesprochener Sprache. [Documentation and analysis of spoken language.] *Zielsprache Deutsch* (Munich), **1**, 1 (1970), 13–21.

A research team in Freiburg, guided by the author, is collecting material and preparing an analysis of the spoken language in Germany today, with the intention of furthering the teaching of German to foreigners. Only one level of German is being studied at present; the speech of articulate, educated adults, in responsible positions in public life. A corpus of one to one-and-a-half million words is expected. Computers will be used for basic analysis of the material

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collected. The work was begun in 1966 and is expected to continue for some years though a selection of the texts so far collected should be published during 1970 in the series *Heutiges Deutsch — linguistische und didaktische Beiträge zum deutschen Sprachunterricht* published by Max Hueber in Munich.

ITALIAN

70–307 **De Taeye-Henen, Monique**. Les verbes 'sdruccioli' de la première conjugaison italienne. [First conjugation 'sdruccioli' verbs in Italian.] *Linguistica Antverpiensia* (Antwerp), 3 (1969), 49–79.

Normal stress in the infinitive of Italian verbs in *-are* falls on the penultimate syllable, but is less stable in a number of tense forms. Verbs with a three-syllable infinitive (e.g. *trovare*) present no difficulty, having paroxytone forms throughout the present indicative, except in the third person plural, *tròvano*, which has antepenultimate stress and is therefore a 'sdrucciolo' or proparoxytone word.

Here one must consider the question of strong and weak verbs, distinguished by whether the stress falls on the root or on the verbal inflexion. The past definite, imperfect and imperfect subjunctive show *trovare* to have weak forms. Present indicative, present subjunctive and imperative have weak forms only in the first and second persons plural. Participles also display weak forms.

Simple future and conditional tenses merit special attention. The future developed into a one-word weak form from Vulgar Latin *amare habeo*; the conditional, non-existent in classical Latin, developed on analogous lines.

Yet while verbs with three-syllable infinitives are straightforward, difficulty arises with four-syllable verbs. Some common ones (e.g. *lavorare, respirare*), whether weak or strong, are paroxytone throughout the present, except in the third person plural. Others (e.g. *abitare*), which a native speaker can cope with quite naturally, will drive the foreign student to one of the rare dictionaries which provide this kind of information. Only the verb's etymology can help him, if he happens to know it, for it is a constant feature that 'sdrucciolo'

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verbs in *-are* carry the stress on the syllable preceding the Latin short syllable.

A list of proparoxytone verbs in *-are* follows. Such a list does not usually appear in verb manuals and the information is often inaccurate in bilingual dictionaries and incomplete in monolingual works. This alphabetical list is as exhaustive as possible, based on Zingarelli, and includes French and Dutch translations. It is preceded by a note giving incidental information on open and closed 'e' and 'o' according to the position of the stress.

RUSSIAN

70–308   Levin, Maurice J. The stress patterns of the Russian noun. *Russian Language Journal* (University of Michigan), **24**, 87 (1970), 9–20.

In spite of the number of scholarly studies devoted to stress in Russian the information has not been translated into clear guidance for foreign learners and many teachers do not fully understand stress patterns. Textbooks in use are often confusing. This article attempts to provide a brief yet complete analysis of the *regular* patterns of stress in Russian noun declension. Other relevant problems such as vowel/zero alternation, choice of ending, etc., are omitted. There are three basic stress patterns which may be termed fixed, shifting and anomalous. A few individual and groups of exceptions are noted. Grammatical paradigms showing regular stress schemes are provided and these are compared with the systems used in two textbooks by Lunt and Bloomfield which do attempt to give some clear teaching on stress. It is concluded that all three systems have some drawbacks, but that with their aid the student will discover that noun stress, though complex, is not chaotic.