

## *Studies of particular languages*

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**ENGLISH** See also abstracts 71-22, -24.

**71-6** **Ball, W. J.** Understatement and overstatement in English. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 3 (1970), 201-8.

[The author discusses, with numerous examples, the nature of understatement and overstatement in English, and whether understatement is characteristically British.]

There is a tendency to use understatement at times of great emotion. Understatement can be a sign of embarrassment, or may conceal anxiety. The language of understatement is colloquial. Understatement may be due to a wish to avoid sensationalism and to exhibit modesty and self-control. It may also be used to avoid offence. A double negative is sometimes a sign of understatement. Emphasis is sometimes achieved by understatement. Overstatement is evident in the exaggerated idiom of everyday speech. Understatement was probably used with an apotropaic purpose. **420 AG**

**71-7** **Breitenstein, P. H.** That simple verb 'to be'. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 3 (1970), 232-5.

The author deals with 'to be' as a full verb, as a copula, and as an auxiliary (of the passive, of the continuous form, and in connection with a prepositional infinitive). **420 AK**

**71-8** **Close, R. A.** Problems of the future tense (1). *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 3 (1970), 225-32.

[The writer quotes various grammarians who have dealt with *shall* and *will*, *going to* and other means of referring to the future.] There have been few authoritative statements about *going to* and other means of expressing the future. One effect of the use of *going to* has

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been to supply a semantically unstressed construction when precision or a particular emphasis is not required or is required at another point. Further investigation into expressions of futurity in English is needed. Variations according to idiolect are very likely. The main expressions can be classified under the headings: (1) predictive statements, (2) present indications of what the future may bring, (3) personal attitudes, and (4) less ambiguous paraphrases for expressions under (2) and (3). [The type chosen for prediction is auxiliary *will* plus infinitive; for present indications, *going to*; and for personal attitude, modal *will*.] 420 AK

**71-9** **Cruttenden, A.** On the so-called grammatical function of intonation. *Phonetica* (Basle), 21, 3 (1970), 182-91.

Whether all intonation can be incorporated into grammar depends on the definition of 'grammatical'.

In Britain intonation-groups have generally been treated in relation to the sentence, while in America the clause has been viewed as the basic unit. Intonation-groups have been characterized in two ways: in terms of breath-group or sense-group, and in terms of a correlation with a grammatical unit. There is a high correlation between intonation-groups and clauses, but there are many exceptions. Disambiguation by means of intonation groupings is infrequent. The function of the intonation-group is to stress the internal coherence of the items within it, and disambiguation is a derivative effect of this function. The intonation-group has the meaning 'one unit of information'. The main accent in the intonation-group indicates the most important word. In particular examples the placement may determine word classes.

Particular sentence-types have often been said to have a 'normal' or 'unmarked' form of tune, which may be modified by 'affective' intonation, but it is difficult to judge exactly what is affective and what is grammatical intonation. Tunes seem to carry a meaning of their own, regardless of sentence-type; falling tunes giving an element of definiteness, rising tunes an element of tentativeness. There can be harmony between the meaning of a tune and the meaning of

a syntactic pattern, but particular sentence-types are not 'marked' by particular tunes. Intonation can affect the syntactic interpretation of sentences, but only in addition to its usual functions. [Bibliography.]

**420 AJP**

**71-10 Gimson, A. C.** British English pronunciation – standards and evolution. *Praxis des neusprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund), **17**, 1 (1970), 17–20.

It is important that teachers of English should reflect in their teaching the current state of the language. At the same time it is necessary to identify the type of English in question and distinguish between well-established developments and those which are fleeting or restricted to certain sections of the community. It is impossible to lay down a world standard for English pronunciation as more than 300 million people speak English as a first language. Within Europe, British English shares the field with American English and the general characteristics of each are known and distinguished. There has never been an official attempt in Britain to establish a standard pronunciation. The BBC now reflects many pronunciations, some of them from the Commonwealth, among its announcers. Although many people seem to aim at Received Pronunciation (Daniel Jones's term) in their pronunciation it is not common amongst younger people. The teacher of English can afford to be somewhat conservative. [Illustrations of recent modifications in vowels.]

**420 AJ**

**71-11 Hill, R. J.** Uncountable nouns. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 3 (1970), 240–44.

The author lists four types of noun which are uncountable in English but which in translation may be countable nouns: straightforward countables, not used with *a(n)* or numerals or in the plural, those which are abnormally countable, those which do not occur in the plural but which sometimes occur in the pattern *a(n)* + adjective + noun, and those which vary in meaning according to their use as countables or uncountables. The first of these types is seen as the basic one. [Examples are given of each type.]

**420 AK**

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- 71-12 Jacobson, Sven.** An example of the positioning of concurrent adverbs. *Moderna Språk* (Saltsjö-Duvnäs), **64**, 2 (1970), 139-47.

The author examines in detail the positioning of *probably*, *now*, and *completely* in the sentence. Probability of occurrence depends mainly on the importance attached to each of the three adverbs in different contexts. The spoken language, and informal style, offer a wider range of contextual possibilities. The positioning of the adverbs follows fairly strict patterns. [The author states these, and makes a transformational analysis in terms of nodal domination in the deep structure and an ordered sequence of adverb movement transformations.]

420 ALD

- 71-13 Lawendowski, Bogusław.** Some observations concerning emphasis. *Studia Anglica Posnaniensia* (Poznan) **2**, 1/2 (1969), 73-83.

Emphasis in interpersonal communication results from the need for intensification or the need for contrast. [The author deals with intensification and emotional emphasis only, giving examples from English and Polish.] More research is needed into the cultural basis of emotions and gestures. Emotional emphasis is expressed in speech and script. The vocal qualifiers characterizing any process of spoken communication are: force of articulation (increasing loudness and softness), pitch range (raised and lowered pitch), the duration of junctures within the intonation tune (spread and squeezed register), rasp and openness, drawl and clipping, sentence tempo. [Each is discussed in turn.] Repetition is commoner in Polish than in English, and is linked with increased tempo. Non-speech sounds (vocal differentiations) form an inherent part of the speaker's culture. They include crying, laughing, voice breaking, nasalization, labialization, glottalization, and retroflexion. The glottal stop appears in combination with vocal qualifiers as a means of negating or affirming the utterance. Voice quality is idiosyncratic and hard to describe. Gestures and movements differ from culture to culture.

420 AJP 491.85

- 71-14 Poldauf, Ivan.** The English language and the British press. *Cizí jazyky ve škole* (Prague), **13**, 9 (1969), 257-67.

The peculiarities of the language of newspapers may be baffling. Nevertheless it is the most read type of English and pupils should be introduced to it at some point in their studies. [The article gives a general introduction to the administration and readership of the British press and then studies details of sentence organization, special vocabulary, grammatical features, treatment of headlines, comparing the traditional styles of various newspapers.] **420 ALD AN**

- 71-15 Pulgram, Ernst.** A socio-linguistic view of innovation: 'ly' and '-wise'. *Word* (New York), **24**, 1/2/3 (1968), 380-91.

Compositions of noun plus *-wise* are gaining ground in American English. It is interesting to see why this locution is successful, whether it is likely to become permanent and what circumstances may impede or aid its spread. A certain number of compounds with *-wise* (i.e. clockwise) are not recent innovations, but whereas these words used to form a closed list, the list is now open-ended and any noun can be used for the first half. The commonest type of adverb in modern English is derived from adjectives with suffix *-ly*. The rise in post-nominal *-wise* compounds is useful since the stock of available adverbs is increased without neologisms or structural innovations. The simple adverb function of the *-wise* compounds is not reflected in their spelling, since all but those of long standing are hyphenated. They are still frowned upon socially but have acquired quasi-formality in some forms of discourse, especially advertising, business and bureaucracy. The construction follows the pattern of the earlier formation of adverbs with *-ly* by which many adverbs, which formerly had none, acquired a marker in conformation with the majority. It is possible that the *-wise* construction will follow the same trend and eventually become acceptable. Grammarians never succeed in preventing linguistic change though they may slow it down. In the present social climate of challenge to authority and

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ancient rules, innovations in language are very likely to establish themselves successfully. 420 ALD

**71-16 Quirk, Randolph.** Taking a deep smell. *Journal of Linguistics*, 6, 1 (1970), 119-24.

The *Survey of English Usage* uses compliance and selection tests to establish the distribution of inflexional forms known to be in divided usage. The preterite and past participle forms of 'smell' are here examined and as there are several meanings of 'smell' more than one test was necessary to elicit the relevant forms. The greatest puzzle was a noticeable difference between the sexes in the use of past and present tenses. 420 ALD

**71-17 Taglicht, J.** The genesis of the conventional rules for the use of 'shall' and 'will'. *English Studies* (Amsterdam), 51, 3 (1970), 193-213.

Certain language conventions, among them the use of *shall* and *will*, have been accepted uncritically, and in spite of apparent contradiction by reputable speakers and writers. Scholarly detachment, ex-colonial susceptibilities, and even dislike of American usage may be the reason for disapproval of change. Articles dating from each decade of the nineteenth century on the use of *shall* and *will* are quoted but no consistency in use can be found. A considerable body of recent scholarly opinion agrees that the traditional rules derive largely from eighteenth-century attempts to interfere with natural English usage by legislation designed to promote logic in language.

This picture of the doctrinaire eighteenth-century grammarian has been magnified out of proportion and has obscured the contribution of that century to grammatical description. [The author demonstrates, with illustrations, that neither Fries nor his followers has provided an adequate description, and that the rules given by Ward (1765) and Wallis (1654) are more satisfactory. Ward's rules for direct and indirect statements and questions are tested by textual study.] 420 AHD AK

**FRENCH** See also abstract 71–28.

**71–18 Barrera-Vidal, Albert.** L'imparfait et le passé composé. *Linguistische Berichte* (Braunschweig), 6 (1970), 35–51.

In considering tense usage, both realized and potential speech forms are examined; that is, utterances which the listener only has to understand without imitating, and utterances by the speaker himself for which he needs an active knowledge of fewer constructions.

A morphological analysis of *chanter* into monemes is followed by a distributional analysis of the forms *il a chanté* and *il chantait*. As such forms always appear in context this will exercise a role in the selection of tense to fit the context. It is shown that after some expressions both tenses are possible. Most teaching grammars try to interpret from the point of view of the listener the different shades of meaning attached to tense usage. In doing so they fail to say whether a particular usage is obligatory or only possible. [Examples drawn from Klein-Strohmeier's *Französische Sprachlehrer* lead to the conclusion that both forms are possible and one must be selected, or else they are complementary and context definitively decides the tense.] In the first case the student is still in doubt as to whether both forms are permissible, or whether one is more current or more likely than the other. There is a danger that if this problem is treated from the point of view of aspect, it will be seen as a subjective matter entirely dependent on the psychological outlook of the speaker. This is not so. Even if language can express the most subjective of human values, its organization is nevertheless an objective reality. [A diagram shows the aspectual values of the two tenses.] Distinction is drawn finally between terminative and non-terminative verbs (according to their meaning). The type of verb will determine the tense in brief utterances where there is little support from the context. Brief reference is made to a modern literary usage of the imperfect called *pittoresque* or *de rupture*. Neither of these is spontaneous or natural. **440 AK**

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**71-19 George, K. E. M.** Characteristics of modern French journales. *Modern Languages* (London), 51, 2 (1970), 67-70.

As French newspapers and periodicals are frequently recommended for reading in English schools it is well for students to be aware of the linguistic features of the French press. A limited number of verbs have become prevalent and compressed in meaning (*évoquer, effectuer*). A restricted number of idioms occurs very frequently. The use of certain tenses is interesting: the conditional is used to indicate unverified statements; extensive use is made of the imperfect to describe single, definitive events where it is felt to be more graphic than the past historic. Isolated instances of the use of syntax and style can be attributed to English influence (position of adjectives, loan-words, change of meaning of familiar words). The French themselves will absorb such new items and technical terms readily, but they are felt to belong to jargon and will not be naturally reproduced in everyday speech. **440 AN**

**71-20 Pinchon, Jacqueline.** Ce qui, ce que, ce dont, ce à quoi. Ce que (de ce que, à ce que). *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), 70 (1970), 38-40, and 71 (1970), 48-9.

The expressions with ce + relative or conjunction are very frequently used in French. They represent either emphasis or the nominalization of a clause by insertion into a sentence. The various types of clause are categorized, revealing how difficult it is to give exact rules for this use of the impersonal form in French. **440 AKN**

## GERMAN

- 71-21 **Admoni, W. G.** Zu Problemen der Syntax. Entwicklungstendenzen des deutschen Satzbaus von heute. [Problems of syntax. Development trends in modern German sentence construction.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Dresden), 7, 1/2 (1970), 9-16.

The syntax of German is more flexible than its morphological structure, therefore it has been affected by events and developments in the last few decades. There is a tendency nowadays to use shorter sentences. Elaborate and complicated sentence structures are being replaced by simpler, linear ones. Qualitative and quantitative changes occur, but the distinction between the two is not always clear. [Example of subjunctive being replaced by the conditional.] Some trends only affect one particular level of the language. This is illustrated by the attributive genitive, the use of which is rare in literary language but on the increase at other levels. [Examples and statistics provided.] The tendency to increase the number and length of noun groups was already noticeable in the seventeenth century. Compound adjectives and derived adjectives are becoming more popular. [Examples.]

The trend towards linear sentence structure instead of hypotaxis started in the eighteenth century. The linear structure facilitates direct connections between ideas and enables the reader to grasp contents quickly. The tendency to avoid or shorten the 'frame' construction formed by a predicate that consists of two or more parts can be observed in both colloquial and literary language. Again the tendency is long-established. It is unlikely to result in the disappearance of the 'frame' altogether, because it is a basic characteristic of German.

[There is a summary of one of the lectures given at the second Internationale Deutschlehrertagung, all of which were reported in this issue. The third issue for 1970 contains the group reports from the same conference on practical subjects such as methodology for advanced conversation, development of oral understanding with beginners, advantages and limitations of pattern praxis, adaptation of technical material, and so on.]

430 AKN

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71–22 **Hüllen, Werner.** Zwanzig englische Kernsätze und ihre deutschen Äquivalente. Versuch einer kontrastiven Analyse. [Twenty English kernel sentences and their German equivalents. Attempt at a contrastive analysis.] *Neuere Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), 18, 12 (1969), 590–600.

Five different types of verbs and their associated syntactic structures, which are expressed in the symbols of transformational grammar, are taken as categories for compiling twenty English kernel sentences that differ with respect to their objects and complements. German sentences are drawn up on the same basis, and the two groups are compared for agreement and deviation. Only ten sentences in each group agree. [Details given.] Most of the differences involve the dative object.

This practical example is followed by a discussion of contrastive analysis and contrastive linguistics in general. They are considered to be of special value for language teaching, where the differences and agreements between the language being studied and the mother tongue are of great importance. The possibility of a single grammar for two languages is discussed but its practical application is doubted.

Transformational grammar, by going back to basic sentence structures, which are applicable to more than one language, is an ideal tool for making a comparison between elements of two languages.

Sentence types should be introduced to language students and practised by them in the way that new words are. [Methodological suggestions given.]

Through contrastive linguistics based on transformational grammar a pedagogic grammar may finally be evolved.

**420 430 AYF**

- 71-23 Reinhardt, Werner.** Probleme der Wortbildung in der deutschen Fachsprache der Technik, dargestellt am Beispiel der sog. verbalen Partikelkompositionen. [Problems of word formation in technical German illustrated by the example of compounds made up of verb plus particle used as prefix.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Dresden), 6, 6 (1969), 415-19.

[The role of the verb in word formation is an interesting field for the linguist studying specialized technical language. In order to illustrate some of the problems and trends that are encountered the author considers in detail compounds formed by verbs and particles used as prefixes. He demonstrates the differences and similarities that exist between these particles and true prefixes. Often the meaning of the particle changes when it is used as a prefix. A list of compounds is given to provide examples.] Statistical proof is offered of the increase in the use of these compounds during the last 100 years, especially the ones formed with *ab-*, *aus-*, *vor-*; they are particularly well suited to the linguistic needs of technology, as they describe processes clearly and concisely. [List of compounds given grouped under the various processes they describe.] Because of the danger of ambiguity the smallest increase in use occurs in the case of those particles that have the greatest number of meanings. [Examples; that of *aus-* and its various meanings given in some detail.]

Studying the structure and vocabulary of specialized technical language is a relatively new field of linguistic research. Those engaged in it must have a good knowledge of the technical processes involved in order to grasp the linguistic problems. Co-operation with technologists on an international level is desirable with a view to standardization.

**430 ANG**

**ITALIAN** *See also abstract 71-28.*

- 71-24 Rando, Gaetano.** The assimilation of English loan-words in Italian. *Italica* (New York), 47, 2 (1970), 129-42.

There has been an unprecedented influx of English words into contemporary Italian. Those who know English well have no trouble

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in pronouncing and using the words in their original form but once a word passes into more general use there is the problem of how to operate it within the phonological and morphological systems of Italian. [The article shows in some detail problems of pronunciation, adaptation of the written form to Italian orthography, morphological assimilation – ascription of gender, plurals, and English verbs usually adapted to the first *-are* conjugation of Italian.] Because of difficulties involved in achieving a satisfactorily Italianized form of the loan, contemporary Italian shows a preference for assimilating English words by semantic means. **450 ALD AYD 420**

## RUSSIAN

**71-25** Lightner, Theodore M. On the alternation 'e-o' in modern Russian. *Linguistics* (The Hague), 54 (1969), 44-69.

The theory of generative phonology provides a theoretical framework which is adequate to account for the *e-o* alternation. Beginning from the vowel segments and diphthongs of proto-Russian, a shift of *e* to *o* before non-sharp consonants is revealed. This is followed by a table giving examples of forms showing *e-o* alternations in modern Russian. The historic shift of *e* to *o* does not entirely account for the present-day language. Three proposals are made to account for all the present-day *e* to *o* vowel shifts, the third of which is adopted, expanded and illustrated at length. An attempt is made to show the intricate inter-relationship between syntactic, segmental and prosodic phenomena in a synchronic description of Russian. By taking advantage of the deeper relationships which exist between such phenomena, a large number of phonological processes can be accounted for by a relatively small number of rules. [Bibliography.] **491.7 AJ**

- 71–26 Ulukhanov, I. S.** О принципах описания значений словообразовательно мотивированных слов [Principles for describing the meanings of derived word-forms.] *Серия литературы и языка*. (Moscow), **29**, 1 (1970), 14–22.

By analysing derived words with close reference to root words and affixes, a more rigorous account of the semantic aspects of word-formation may be given than hitherto, particularly with respect to the Russian verb.

There are two essential items for such an analysis to be effective. First, a standard formula for interpreting the meaning of derived words is useful in distinguishing lexical components, relating to root meaning, from word-forming components relating to the specific meaning of a given word. Secondly, a set of semantic elements should be drawn up to be used as yardsticks of meaning in accounting for the meanings of derived words. In this way, differences between the semantic and the formal aspects of derived words may become more apparent. [Three groups of examples are given.]

These two items assist also in comparing the coincidence and non-coincidence of semantic elements in various derivatives. [Tables show derivatives – verbs with similar prefixes – plotted against semantic elements.] Furthermore, they assist in the long-term aim of establishing a finite set of semantic elements. [As examples, six types of verb displaying varying semantic elements are analysed.]

**491.7 ADF**

## SPANISH

- 71–27 Goicochea, V. S.** Sobre los equivalentes en castellano de ‘already’ y ‘yet’ usados con el present perfect tense. [A study of the Spanish equivalents of the adverbs ‘already’ and ‘yet’, used with the perfect tense in English.] *Lenguaje y Ciencias* (Trujillo), **34** (1969), 16–20.

[Eleven grammatically acceptable examples are given.]

The Spanish tense used is always the perfect, except in three

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cases. In two of them, the preterite is used with *ya* because the adverb indicates simply that the action was carried out in the past. In the third, the future perfect is used with *todavía* to express maximum incredulity.

Equivalents are given for the remaining eight examples, using the adverbs *ya*, *aún* and *todavía*. 460 AK

**71–28 Richman, Stephen H.** Identical spelling and recognizability among romance cognates. *Studia Linguistica* (Lund), 24, 1 (1970), 43–55.

Research indicates that Spanish and Portuguese are lexically closer to each other than either is to Italian, and that they are both closer to Italian than to French. Rumanian shares fewer cognates than any other Romance language. [The author gives a list of 100 sets of high-frequency words which are homosemantic cognates in Spanish, Portuguese, Italian and French.] Cognate identity is twice as high for Spanish and Portuguese as for any other two of the languages. English shares cognates with more than half the sets. A Spanish speaker will recognize about three-quarters of written Portuguese or Italian cognates in their uninflected form, a Portuguese speaker about three-quarters of written Italian or Spanish cognates, a speaker of Spanish, Portuguese or Italian about half the French cognates, and a French speaker about half the written Spanish, Portuguese or Italian cognates. The total number of words recognized will be greater between Spanish and Portuguese.

Analysis of thirty sets of low-frequency words (listed) showed similar facts, though the percentages of recognizable cognates are higher. [The article concludes with a defence of the method used.]

440 450 460 469 ALD AYD