

Studies of particular languages

ENGLISH *See also abstract 72–299*

72–284 Barnaby, David. Adjective order in English noun phrases. *Nottingham Linguistic Circular* (Nottingham), **1**, 2 (1972), 13–15.

The paper was provoked by a remark of Crystal's (1971) on the unsatisfactory nature of formal descriptions of modifying strings in English nominal groups. An attempt is made to describe modifying structure in terms of progressive semantic differentials, chiefly by examples. Before singular and plural countable and mass nouns, modifiers are added immediately after pre-, regular and post-determiners. The sequence is: (1) *usual*; (2) *good*; (3) adjectives of dimension; (4) of other physical attributes; (5) of character (including *bad*); (6) of age; (7) of colour; (8) of nationality [examples given by the author and quoted from other sources]. Exceptions are discussed that are of frequent occurrence and hence form their own class [examples]. It is deduced that the adjective precedence rule is semantic, not phonetic, and that adjective collocations, if regarded as single adjectives, fit these descriptive rules. [Short bibliography.]

420 ADF AKN

72–285 Barrie, William B. What's in a determiner? *Langues Modernes* (Paris), **65**, 4 (1971), 69–80.

Modern linguistics has not turned with any serious attention to the problem of the selection and use of the determiner in English. Some uses, as in the names of places, may be arbitrary. Determiners are related to nouns in a way which may be compared with the significance of formal changes or auxiliaries in relation to verbs. Countable and uncountable are misleadingly simple as labels for the uses of determiners. There is no advantage in a pretence of simplicity when the facts are complex, but there is an advantage to be gained by linking

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the terminology used for different parts of speech. [Examples of the relationship of nouns and adjectives and verb form alternation.] Aspectual values can be recognized for determiners if nouns are labelled punctual or iterative (in place of countable) according to context, and stative or continuous or progressive (in place of uncountable) as for verbs.

The modal values of determiners are seen as 'An overt indication that the speaker is viewing the facts from a personal angle, thereby creating a certain complicity between interlocutors, both sides being aware of the extrafactual overtones that accompany the factual information contained in the utterance.' The modal determiners are *the, this, these, that* and *those*. *The* is non-aspectual and modal. Two modals are presented to convey the linguistic perceptions associated with the two meanings underlying *the*. [Examples are given to support the hypotheses that *the* is modal while *a* is part of a paradigm denoting aspectual values.] The use of a determiner with a nominalization is dependent on the presence or absence of other punctualizing information. 420 ADN

72-286 Bennet, David C. Some observations concerning the locative-directional distinction. *Semiotica* (The Hague), 5, 1 (1972), 58-88.

Contrary to the position of Kuryłowicz, Gruber, and Fillmore it is necessary to recognize four 'deep' cases. The elements 'locative', 'source', 'path' and 'goal' occur in the underlying representations of English sentences: all locative predicates contain a locative, all directional predicates a source, path or goal element. The constructions in which these elements occur may be referred to as spatial expressions, realized in prepositional phrases and also in adverbs and verbs. [Examples and discussion.] Spatial expressions may be further classified, according to the complexity of their internal structure, as locative expressions; directional expressions; directional-locative expressions; and (directional-locative) directional expressions. [Examples and table.] Using the graphic notation of Lamb's stratificational grammar [references], and presenting the facts in the form of a

network of relations, the nature of the generative device capable of generating the various kinds of spatial expressions can be sketched. [Figure 1: a fragment of English semotactics, plus explanation.]

In dealing with the question of the surface realization of spatial expressions it becomes clear that prepositions need not be regarded as polysemous. [Examples.] In fact the labels locative, directional, and directional-locative may be applied not only to spatial expressions but also to individual prepositions. [Eight directional prepositions are identified and discussed.] It has been argued that in deep structure all spatial prepositional phrases are locative, that directional prepositions are transformationally derived, and that the difference between locative and directional prepositions is determined by contrast in the verb. The contrast, however, is really between a locative or directional predicate, the choice of which determines both the preposition and the verb. Kuryłowicz, Gruber and Fillmore not only fail to distinguish three kinds of directional expression, they apparently assume that verbs of motion exist as such in deep structure. In fact, not only prepositions but also verbs are 'mapped' onto particular stretches of underlying representation, and verbs of motion seem to be a subclass of directional verbs (ie all verbs containing source, path or goal components). [Bibliography.]

420 ADN

72-287 Filipović, Rudolf. Problems of contrastive work. *Studia Romanica et Anglica Zagrebiensia* (Zagreb), 29-32 (1970/71), 19-54.

The Yugoslav Serbo-Croatian/English contrastive project is described at length. The introduction sets out as the object the definition of the areas of interference in the language-teaching situation. Analysis is systematic and synchronic and is intended to have pedagogic, and applied and theoretical general-linguistic value. The methodology of the study was first discussed in 1967 [available theories described]. Methods were chosen to combine the theoretical and the empirical. The translation method was adopted, based on a corpus of examples, and the approach to the linguistic material is a generative-structural compromise.

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The Brown corpus was chosen, consisting of over one million written words of recent, edited American prose. It was reduced by half and translated into Serbo-Croat (all three major variants represented). [The coding system for the retrieval of morphological and syntactic elements is described in detail.] The contrastive analysis is being carried out at four linguistic levels: (1) phonology; (2) morphology, including word-formation; (3) syntax; (4) lexis. The structure of English is being treated under about fifty headings [a detailed breakdown of topics is given and the work of the analyser described].

Analysis usually begins with the target language, English, and defines areas of overlap and likely interference. The results achieved so far, and studies and reports written on the project are described. Particular problems have been isolated (eg English auxiliaries and compound words). Teaching materials are suggested, and methods of error analysis and testing. Cooperation with the Center for Applied Linguistics (Virginia) is mentioned, and links with other projects: English/Romanian, English/Hungarian and English/Czech.

420 AYF 491.82

72-288 Grady, Michael. The source of 'adverbial good'? *Linguistics* (The Hague), 77 (1972), 22-5.

From an anecdote about a child's speech pattern the hypothesis is drawn that there is confusion between *good* and *well* because for the child *good* functions as an adjective subject complement, inserted into a consumer sentence by embedding, instead of as a mere adverbial, generated during the immediate development of the VP. [Examples.] The subject-verb unit is susceptible to a kind of nominalization in the mind of the speaker, and is capable of adjectival attribution, which is then shifted into the non-nominalized consumer sentence by an embedding procedure: eg she sings good ← she sings (her singing is good). If this hypothesis is correct, semantic similarity is necessary between the subject-verb unit of the consumer sentence and the *-ing* subject of the insert sentence. Correlation is suggested with a similar confusion of *bad/badly*. [Examples.]

An explanation is offered of the phenomenon in the grammar of

children and adults, and it is recognized that the errors involved are complex. It is possible that the child learns the process of embedding before all the restrictions on the applicability of the process.

420 AGR AKN

72-289 Wolfram, Walt. Linguistic assimilation in the children of immigrants. *Linguistic Reporter* (Washington DC), **14**, 1 (1972), 1-3.

Although language interference among first-generation immigrants in the United States is relatively well documented, studies of the linguistic assimilation of the children of these immigrants is meagre. In an effort to describe the emergence of some general sociolinguistic principles of language contact, the Center for Applied Linguistics recently completed a detailed analysis of the English used by second-generation Puerto Ricans in East Harlem. The informant group was composed of teen-age boys, most of whose parents are labourers and live in tenements. The boys' school records are poor and many are functional illiterates. Most are integral members of indigenous peer groups, participating fully in the street culture of East Harlem, and subject to several different pressures in terms of language usage. At home Puerto Rican Spanish is the rule; at school English becomes an alternate language. Their models in English are: (1) the standard English of school and the mass media; (2) the Spanish-influenced variety of English used by their parents; (3) Black English.

There is vestigial interference from Puerto Rican Spanish [examples], but the influence of Black English from the surrounding community is considerable [examples]. There is evidence that grammatical features require first-hand peer contact for assimilation to take place, but that phonological features are assimilated indirectly [examples]. There are also instances of convergent processes, where the output from Spanish and Black English rules may yield identical forms [examples]. However, rules also seem to be emerging which are not directly related to either source language or source dialect. [Double tense marking is discussed in detail.]

420 AYL ENR (460)

FRENCH *See also abstract 72–282*

72–290 **Calvé, Pierre.** *C'est quoi, le français ?* [What's French ?] *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), 28, 3 (1972), 20–5.

The title of this article startles by its inappropriateness, but universal French is a myth of the grammar books. From extreme A (literary classical French) to extreme B (popular parlance) there are varying degrees of formality and informality. School-teaching inculcates the literary language, driving the student to talk as Bossuet wrote, and no time is given to perfecting mother-tongue oral skills for communication; the problem is no different in second-language learning. A pupil passes from A in class to B in his daily contacts – in Canada from 'peler des pommes de terre' to 'éplucher des patates'. These variations exist in all languages, but French has been 'regulated' more than any other – witness the books on *bon usage*, the difficulty of getting new words accepted, the harking back to classical formations: eg *cheval/hippique*. Spelling is inflated with unnecessary letters – a legacy of Latin – flouting the natural economy of the language. Consequently French has recourse to loans from English and we have the reprehensible 'franglais'. But vocabulary can and must change and a language's identity lies in its grammar, still unassailed in French, even Canadian French.

There is a second norm provided by stylistic variation which is governed by the extra-linguistic situation. In some languages (Greek, Arabic) this creates diglossia. In French, the man in the street trying his hand at officialese is an example. English, by comparison, seems a simpler and more utilitarian language and bilingual Canadians often take refuge in English for writing or for official purposes. A third norm is social: the old prestige of the Ile de France dialect makes it still the model for all French speakers.

There are three desirable developments: (1) the language can only survive if untrammelled by political, social or cultural restraints – and in Canada only if it serves *all* communication needs; (2) standard spoken French as such should be taught in schools; (3) theoreticians should accept language change and cease clinging to a literary style which cannot answer modern communication needs. **440 AVD 971**

72-291 Gorcy, Gérard. Le dictionnaire TLF. [The thesaurus of the French language.] *Français Moderne* (Paris), **40**, 1 (1972), 81-96.

Coinciding in publication with the first volume of the dictionary, the article considers the range of procedures involved in arriving at a total of 70,000 entries. [The methods of location and the criteria for the selection of items are described.] Past participles are given a separate entry only if their use as adjectives or nouns is attested, since the purely verbal uses are dealt with in the entry for the verb. The distinction is not always easy to make. Lexical items which are currently productive in the formation of new compound words, but which are used only in technical or other registers, are not given a separate entry.

To establish a taxonomy of the content of utterances it must be assumed that the relevant distinctive features can be determined and can be represented in a significant system. Semantic structure is seen as an articulation of the semantic universe in minimally meaningful units (called *sèmes*) corresponding to distinctive features on the level of expression, and, like them, organized in a binary system. Dictionaries have acknowledged the insufficiency of treating items as though they were discrete. A paradigmatic structuring offers a guide to the production of discourse through the attestation of the *semes*. Syntagmatic structuring permits the confirmation of the units thus established.

On the basis of the isolated word the dictionary compiler can use the examples available in his documents to look at his own sense of the meanings of the word from the perceptual, affective and conceptual viewpoint. The compiler receives for each word: photocopies of the entries from the main nineteenth- and twentieth-century dictionaries; examples of the word in context; the most frequent and important associations of the word. [Examples are given of collocational relations reflected by the paradigmatic structure for *image*.] **440 ALG**

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72-292 **Jeanes, R. W.** 'Les filles aux cheveux blonds' or 'à cheveux blonds'? *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), 28, 3 (1972), 48-9 and 52-5.

The French preposition *à*, used to introduce a distinctive feature, is usually combined with the definite article: *l'homme à la barbe blanche*. The rarer construction without the article, and the impossibility of following *à* with *un*, is not accounted for in the grammars. Constructions patterned on *à la barbe blanche* can be said to be a subclass of structures of determination. Apart from the one-word adjective *de* and the relative clause, identification may be achieved by a characterizing adjective, or by a descriptive relative clause or noun phrase. The English distinction between 'the man with the white beard' and '... a white beard' cannot be expressed in French by the difference of article. French achieves the equivalent of the English compound 'white-bearded' by a lexicalized expression, *à + le + NP*, the use of *le* naming a known reality enabling identification. As *un* would introduce an analytical, not a naming definition, it would be out of place in such constructions. Theoretically, *le* has general reference so such structures are bound. *Un homme à barbe blanche* reflects the change in the speaker's intention from identification to analysis. Usually only objective elements are useful for identification purposes but a subjective characterizer may be included.

The distinctive feature may be a simple noun: *la dame aux camélias*. The article is dropped with the plural: *les hommes à barbe blanche*. *À barbe blanche* is used as a notional determiner, in which elements are to be taken analytically as normal distinguishing features of a notional subclass represented by new or known compound nominal lexicalization – a structure much used in French: *un moulin à vent*, etc. The choice between *à + article* and *à* without the article is a choice between a situational characterizer and a notional determiner. People tend to come into the former, things into the latter class. *A cheveux blonds* is analytic, *aux cheveux blonds* situational, not requiring analysis. Exceptions can be used for stylistic effect. Culinary phrases such as *choux à la crème* and *salade de tomates*, provide further interesting distinctions between incidental and basic ingredients. As new phrases tend to be formed on this pattern it is important that the student should appreciate what categories exist. 440 AKT

72-293 **Sauvageot, A.** L'ordre des mots. [Word order in spoken French.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), 86 (1972), 6-10.

The exigencies of the language impose certain word-order sequences on the speaker. If in a moment of stress a word is blurted out which cannot subsequently be followed by others which will produce a satisfactory sentence, then strategies are adopted which make a new and acceptable expression. Such strategies tend to isolate the intrusive word and then to provide pronouns in the fully formed sentence which refer back to it. Pronoun complements have allotted places in the word sequence within an expression. Confusion between one set of pronoun sequences and another can result in speakers sounding careless but does not diminish comprehensibility. A strict sequence, however, applies to the component parts of compound tenses and to infinitives dependent on a verb. Inversion of subject and verb is used for stylistic purposes. Such cases apart, affirmations and negations require that the subject precede the verb. Hence the popularity of such forms as *il, ça* and *il y a*.

Modifiers are subject to strict rules of sequence. Wide latitude is offered in the placing of adjectives relative to substantives but this theoretical freedom remains largely unexploited in speech. [Substantives and past participles are discussed, and examples given of the three different sequences of words which are possible when two qualifiers describe one word.] There is a special group of two-word qualifiers concerned with colours. The 'rule of progressivity' attributes to the French language a 'natural' preference for a word order in which the qualifier follows the qualified word, though it is difficult to adduce objective evidence to support this notion. The speaker of French must be constantly alert to see that the elaboration of his thoughts does not interfere with the production of his sentences – otherwise he may say things which he does not intend. Extempore composition of sentences can result in outright conflict between intention and outcome. This produces more or less successful breaches of the constraints, and these changes are carried into the written language.

440 AKN ATD

GERMAN

72-294 **Bondzio, Wilhelm.** Zur deutschen Gegenwartssprache in der DDR. [On modern German in the GDR.] *Zeitschrift für Phonetik, Sprachwissenschaft und Kommunikationsforschung* (Berlin), 24, 3/4 (1971), 220-3.

The hypothesis that the post-1945 division of Germany has caused a split within modern German has been voiced on many occasions, more by people with a political rather than a linguistic interest. That differences exist between German as spoken in East and West Germany is freely admitted, but there is disagreement about how significant these differences are and whether they affect the essential structure of German. The majority of scholars would probably agree that the linguistic 'innovations' in the GDR belong to the realm of restricted languages, ie that they are *sonderssprachlich*, affecting vocabulary in particular, but not interfering in any way with the structural common core of the German language. The geopolitical situation of the two German states has meant that many German words, originally defined and understood by all German speakers in a more or less identical way, have diverged semantically as a result of political and economic barriers and of the continuous process of integration and assimilation of West Germany into the EEC and NATO, and of East Germany into COMECON, the Warsaw Pact and so forth. In all German-speaking countries the decisive role is played not by outward linguistic form but by inner semantic content and it is this latter phenomenon which deserves the attention of scholars.

430 ADF AFL

- 72–295 **Meier, Barbara and Eva Volkmann.** Monosemierungs-algorithmen polysemer deutscher Lexeme. [Algorithms for characterizing the monosemes of polysemic German lexemes.] *Zeitschrift für Phonetik, Sprachwissenschaft und Kommunikationsforschung* (Berlin), 24, 1/2 (1971), 91–120.

The next stage in automatic language processing is seen as principally that of semantic analysis. The enormous number of articles in specialist journals and other publications makes it essential to develop automatic abstracting, information retrieval and translating systems. Retrieval systems require item look-up techniques and depend on information for which the source is the language text.

The fundamental semantic methods which are to be used rest on the theory that all men perceive the same thing independently of their language and can express it through the particular language each happens to speak. Man is capable of grasping the whole context, and a word with many meanings comes to have one meaning through its relation to other elements in the context. A machine must proceed word by word, and will fail to deal with the frequent case of polysemy. [A description of a monoseme characterization algorithm within the larger flow diagram of a content analysis.] Work on the problems of polysemy begins best with the verb. [Survey of lines of development in semantic analysis and consideration of the relationship of the work described to contemporary work in semantics and semantic analysis.] The advantages of the method used in the present case arise from its language-independence. [Details of advantages are given, and the method is described in detail with examples of application to ten polysemic German verbs.] **430 ADF ARK**

- 72–296 **Zacher, Oskar and Nina Griščenko.** Hauchlaut–Achlaut–Ichlaut der hochdeutschen Gegenwartssprache in phonologischer Sicht. [A phonological analysis of the spirants *h-x-ç* in present-day High German.] *Folia Linguistica (Acta Societatis Linguisticae Europaeae)* (The Hague), 5, 1/2, 109–16.

There are at least five different phonological evaluations of the group of spirants *h-x-ç* in German [opinions quoted, bibliographical data

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given]. The question of whether they form one phoneme, whether *h* and *x* or *x* and *ç* represent one phoneme, whether they are all modifications of one phoneme or whether each is a separate phoneme is very complex. A uniform solution can be found only by basing any analysis on a uniform starting-point. Nine basic principles for such an analysis are suggested and explained. System-related distributive analysis is defined, and the historical development of *h-x-ç* is traced in detail.

The sound *ç* in modern German is characterized as only a weak modification of the phoneme *h*. It would be possible to use the letter *h* for representing the whole sound complex *h-x-ç*, provided *h* was stripped of its lengthening functions to avoid ambiguity. Word counts have revealed that *ç* is the most frequently used sound of the complex, followed by *h* and *x*. Oppositions are listed involving each of the three sounds; the opposition *j-h(ç)* is discussed. **430 AJ**

ITALIAN

72-297 De Taeye-Henen, Monique. Les verbes 'sdruc-cioli' de la première conjugaison italienne. [First conjugation 'sdruc-cioli' verbs in Italian.] *Linguistica Antverpiensia* (Antwerp), 5 (1971), 15-38.

An alphabetical and exhaustive list (E-O inclusive) of 'sdruc-cioli' or proparoxytone verbs in *-are* is given, translated into French and Dutch in two parallel columns, as the second part of work explaining the principles of stress in the Italian verb system. The first part appeared in the same journal, 3 (1969), 49-79, and began the alphabetical list of verbs (A-D). **450 AJP AK**

72-298 Jernej, Josip. I due tipi del predicativo in italiano. [The two types of predicative in Italian.] *Studia Romanica et Anglica Zagrebiensia* (Zagreb), 29-32 (1970/71), 65-72.

The predicative has been touched on only lightly in Italian grammars under varying guises: attribute of the verb, predicative attribute, adjective with adverbial meaning. The first of the two types - bound

and free – is discussed in Battaglia and Pernicone, but investigation of the predicative *per se* is overdue. The predicate itself is found as: (1) verbal predicate (finite form); (2) verbal predicate (infinitive); (3) elliptical predicate; (4) nominal predicate (copula of verb *essere* or semi-lexical verb + nominal or semantic element, ie noun, adjective, pronoun, verb or more complex structure).

In close functional relation to the predicate is the predicative (complement), indicating some quality of the subject or object. The dual relationship with verb and subject or object can help identify the predicative bound or free either as adverb (bound solely to the verb) or as circumstantial (referring to the whole content of the phrase). A bound predicative is found in the nominal element of the nominal predicate. Many verbs can function in a copula and may be classified by semantic criteria as (verbs of effect, choice, naming, judgement or perception, in active or passive mood according to whether the complement relates to the subject or to the object [classification given with examples]). A free predicative is not demanded by the nature of the verb. It completes, modifies or intensifies the predicate's communicative value. It is found as adjective, gerund, noun, or more complex grammatical structure – nominal or subordinate clause. Its expressivity gives it a specific stylistic function and many examples can be found in poetry [examples given from Carducci].

450 ADF ADN

JAPANESE

72–299 **Pierce, Joe E.** Culture, diffusion and Japlish. *Linguistics* (The Hague), 76 (1971), 45–58.

'Japlish' is a label often applied to modern Japanese because of the enormous number of borrowings from English, adding up to a significant proportion of the basic vocabulary of young Japanese speakers. Approximately 70,000 items have been borrowed since 1946, and 60 per cent are from English. A study of these words should throw light on the cultural borrowing process itself. In studying culture, methods must be contrived to distinguish the functionally significant

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(-emic), from the irrelevant (-etic) variations. [Examples.] Linguistic structure appears rigid only because linguists have devised methodological tools for handling the observable variations. Anthropologists do the same for other cultural subsystems (eg kinship) in order to understand the functionally significant units at various levels, parallel with levels of linguistic analysis, for the great mass of variation is irrelevant to the culture.

When any cultural element is borrowed, it passes through a filter formed by the contrasting phonemic structures of the contributing and borrowing cultures. The phonological structure of Japanese filters out certain phonemes absent from Japanese [examples]. Other sounds are added, where they do not occur in English, for a variety of reasons derivable from Japanese structure [examples]. The special Japanese alphabet *Katakana*, used to transcribe foreign words, should act as a secondary filter affecting the borrowing process, but in fact its impact is simply to reinforce the phonological structure which in most cases it directly reflects. The aim of further work on English loanwords in Japanese is to discover into what Japanese phoneme(s) and under what conditions each English phoneme from the entire list of borrowed words has been converted. **495.6 AF AYL 420**