

Descriptive studies of particular languages

English

87–272 Boisson, Claude (U. of Lyon II). L'auxiliaire 'faire' comme trace énonciative et le concept de maîtrise. [The auxiliary 'do' as an utterance marker and the concept of mastery.] *Contrastes* (Paris), **12** (1986), 5–42.

The English use of *do* as an auxiliary in negation, interrogation and emphasis is quite unusual in the world's languages. However, similar uses of *do*-equivalents are found in various languages (examples from several languages, especially of Papua New Guinea and North America).

Why is *do* used in such disparate structures? It is argued that there are links in the use of these structures: e.g. a *Yes/No* question can imply a negative (*Am I my brother's keeper?*), and negatives can be used, in non-standard English, to assert emphatically a proposition (*You ain't scum much, 'You are scum!'*). Evidence to support this argument

is adduced from the fact that in certain languages (Gaelic, Quechua) there are other formal similarities between negatives and interrogatives. Furthermore, in some languages (e.g. Japanese, Palau), there is a formal similarity between non-factive constructions (e.g. negation) and passives. Passives are often a means of expressing an agent's attenuated control over a process.

The concept of 'mastery' provides a unified explanation for these facts. In the unmarked case, the speaker has complete 'mastery' over his utterance, but in non-factives, emphasis and passives, his 'mastery' is suspended or attenuated.

87–273 Ihms, Henry. Das verkannte Präsenzpartizip im Englischen. Eine semantisch (textlinguistisch)-orientierte Untersuchung. [The misunderstood present participle in English. A semantic (text-linguistic) study.] *Die Neueren Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main, FRG), **85**, 3 (1986), 283–301.

Grammarians have argued that a clear-cut distinction cannot always be made between the English gerund and present participle, and have posited a 'half-gerund' (Sweet) or 'variable *ing*-form' (Lamprrecht). Such constructs are unnecessary: both ger-

unds (in the traditional sense) and present participles (in a slightly altered sense) can be adequately distinguished if one is not blinded by surface structure but takes account of context and of discourse function.

87–274 Nieuwint, Pieter. Present and future in conditional protases. *Linguistics* (Amsterdam), **24**, 2 (1986), 371–92.

This paper discusses and rejects proposals by Haegeman and Wekker (1984) and Declerck (1984) to account for the appearance of nonvolitional *will/would* in conditional protases. It is argued (a) that the phenomenon cannot be properly understood unless the present tense in conditional and temporal subclauses is looked upon as having nonpast rather than future reference; (b) that the absence of *will/would*

from temporal subclauses can be explained in the same terms as the presence of *will/would* in a certain type of conditional protasis: (c) that the condition to be fulfilled in such a protasis is not the occurrence of an event, but the truth of a prediction; and (d) that some, but not all, cases of volitional *will/would* can be explained in the same way.

French

87–275 Allen, R. F. (Rutgers State U., New Brunswick, NJ). Le sens de l'honnêteté dans 'Le Père Goriot'. [The meaning of honesty in 'Le Père Goriot'.] *Cahiers de Lexicologie* (Paris), **48**, 1 (1986), 111–15.

In the course of a stylo-statistical study of the vocabulary of *Le Père Goriot*, key-adjectives (those that deviate significantly from the norm in a positive

direction) were identified, using the norm frequencies established by the Institut National de la Langue Française. One of the adjectives, *honnête*, appeared

to hold particular interest, in that upon analysing its use in context, it was noticed that the underlying meaning of *honnête* did not conform to its lexical meaning, whether figurative or literal: through this

analysis and by reference to past experiences in Balzac's life, the true sense that *honnête* must have had for Balzac, on what undoubtedly was an unconscious level, is revealed, namely *malhonnête*.

87-276 Andreiolo, Tomyris Julia. La spécificité du lapsus écrit. [The specific character of slips of the pen.] *L/NX* (Paris), **12** (1985), 37-54.

Slips of the pen appear less numerous than slips of the tongue because we rarely see uncorrected manuscripts. Referential slips (those involving dates, figures, proper names) are particularly hard to detect as the reader does not have the correct information anyway. Certain slips go uncorrected because typists and editors often do not notice cases such as metathesis (e.g. *caratéristique* for *caractéristique*).

Since French orthography is not based on a simple principle of one phoneme = one grapheme, many written words have a characteristic 'face' which allows writers to establish semantic associa-

tions with other words. Deliberate slips are often used for humorous purposes, as in puns, and in Finkelkraut's *Petit dictionnaire*, in which *médicamant* (a blend of *médicament* 'medicine' and *amant* 'lover') is defined as 'person brought into one's life to cure sorrow or overcome depression'. Some accidental slips are Freudian in revealing the writer's subconscious or secret attitudes: e.g. a writer intending *Je me souviens des goûters de famille* 'I remember the family tea-times', inadvertently wrote *dégoûtée* 'disgusted' instead of *des goûters*. Another, intending *Chère Mademoiselle*, wrote *Chair* 'flesh', instead of *Chère*.

87-277 Calvet, Louis-Jean. Le français dans tous ses états. [French - a language 'in a state']. *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **203** (1986), 24-5.

Six recent books are discussed, most of which suggest that the French language is in crisis: pupils' writing is full of mistakes, English dominates internationally, English loan-words are gaining ground in France. But is this a crisis of language or of culture? Attempts to stem the tide by linguistic prescriptivism are

doomed to failure: a language belongs to its people and is fashioned by their daily use, and no academy can change this. An expanding language is an expanding people/culture/economy, and vice versa.

German

87-278 Cherubim, Dieter (U. of Göttingen). Deutsche Sprache in der Gegenwart: Problem, Aufgabe und Prüfstein für die Germanistik. [The present-day German language: a problem, task and touchstone for German studies.] *ZGL: Zeitschrift für germanistische Linguistik* (Berlin, FRG), **14**, 2 (1986), 147-60.

The author reviews the field of 19th century German studies and distinguishes three types of scholar who dealt with the German language: the grammarian, concerned to formulate a standard for 'good' German, the linguist aiming to uncover linguistic universals (on the basis of comparative and theoretical studies) and the Germanist, who used philological and historical methods to interpret and explain older texts of German or Germanic languages.

The contemporary German language of the period was seen by the grammarian as presenting a problem to be solved; in particular, the standardisation of the spoken language seemed to be out of reach of the regulatory hand of the grammarian. For the linguist, such as Wilhelm von Humboldt, the

German language of the period represented a case study and was also a touchstone for his theories of the nature and the natural history of language and languages. For the historical philologist, such as Jacob Grimm, the German language was a problem; he looked back to the earlier periods of the language and to the origins of the language. Given such orientations it is not surprising that it was not until after 1960 that de Saussure's theories concerning the synchronic and structuralist principles of analysis became fully accepted in Germany. In 1964, the *Institut für deutsche Sprache* was founded in Mannheim to pursue research into the contemporary language. [Some contrasting examples from contemporary texts are analysed.]

87–279 Delisle, Helga H. (New Mexico State U.). Intimacy, solidarity and distance: the pronouns of address in German. *Die Unterrichtspraxis* (Philadelphia, Pa), **1** (1986), 4–15.

There is increased use of *du* in the Federal Republic of Germany: there are now two systems of pronominal address, known as A_1 and A_2 . In the former system, *Sie* is the standard form and is used with everyone except family, close friends and children. The choice of pronoun denotes either formality, authority, respect and distance or intimacy and informality. In the latter, *du* is the standard form and is used with family, close friends and children, but also with acquaintances belonging to the same group or sharing common interests; here the use of *Sie* is reserved for the outsider and indicates social distance.

Difficult situations which can arise due to the existence of these two systems are described. For example, a newcomer listening to a conversation where both speakers were using *du* would not know whether the speakers were close friends or simply belonged to the same interest group. The author also describes various instances where the use of the pronoun is non-reciprocal, i.e. one speaker uses *du* and the other *Sie*.

The author maintains that the use of *du* will continue to increase, and concludes by showing that textbooks do not deal adequately with the distinction between *du* and *Sie*.

Italian

87–280 Wierzbicka, Anna. Italian reduplication: cross-cultural pragmatics and illocutionary semantics. *Linguistics* (Amsterdam), **24**, 2 (1986), 287–315.

The article examines the use and the function of 'syntactic reduplication' in Italian and compares it with some other 'intensification' devices, in Italian and in English, such as the 'absolute superlative'. Subtle 'pragmatic' meanings such as those conveyed in Italian reduplication can be identified and distinguished from other, related meanings if *ad hoc* impressionistic comments are replaced with rigorous semantic representations; and it is shown how a semantic metalanguage derived from natural lan-

guage can be used for that purpose. Syntactic reduplication belongs to a system of illocutionary devices which reflect, jointly, some characteristic features of the Italian style of social interaction. More generally, illocutionary grammar can be linked with 'cultural style', and cross-cultural pragmatics can gain considerably in both insight and rigor if its problems are translated into the language of illocutionary semantics.

Russian

87–281 Dmitrovskaya, M. A. Механизмы понимания и употребления глагола 'понимать.' [The mechanisms of understanding and the use of the verb 'понимать' (to understand).] *Вопросы языкознания* (Moscow), **3** (1985), 98–107.

Understanding is closely linked to knowledge and opinion. Opinion is the result of analysing a situation but the conclusion is subjective. Knowledge can be divided into three categories: (a) deduced, i.e. the result of analysis (b) non-deduced, i.e. intuitive or a priori and (c) from a secondary source, i.e. received in the process of education or from books. Understanding is the result of several mental operations similar to the attainment of opinion. Explicit expression of understanding is similar to knowledge.

Understanding can be divided into three categories: (a) propositional achievement, (b) clarification, i.e. explaining for oneself the essence of a phenomenon, and (c) understanding an explanation. Understanding as a propositional achievement can

be further divided into subcategories: (i) understanding the link between direct causal relationships, (ii) analysis of a situation and a set of facts, (iii) awareness of psychological processes, similar to feeling, (iv) empathy, understanding the psychological processes of another person, (v) understanding derived from personal experience and knowledge of life.

Understanding is not completely analogous to knowledge. Natural phenomena can be known without being understood but understanding of them is based on acquired knowledge. Incomplete understanding does not exclude the possibility of knowledge.

87–282 Golubyeva-Monatkina, N. I. Вопросительные предложения в русском и французском языках. [Interrogatory sentences in Russian and French.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), **5** (1985), 38–44.

At the intermediate stage of language learning, having previously concentrated upon differences between the native and foreign languages, students sometimes become over-suspicious of similarities between them. This article focuses upon similarities as well as differences in the formation of questions. Five types of question as classified by Bryzgunova are examined: (i) *Kuda vy idyotye? V teatr?* (ii) *Kto idyot v teatr?* (iii) *Vy idyotye v teatr?* (iv) *A. idyot v teatr. A B.?* (v) *A. tozhe tuda idyot?*

A comparison of these questions, together with

stylistic variants in French and Russian reveals areas of structural similarity, but also differences related in particular to the flexible intonation patterns of Russian, which the French language matches, in some cases, with extra structural flexibility. Stylistic variation in Russian is also seen to draw upon the lexical more than the structural resources of the language. Examples of translations of literary texts are used to illustrate some of the distinctions drawn.

87–283 Kozhin, A. W. Новые явления в русском языке периода великой отечественной. [New phenomena in the Russian language during the period of the Second World War.] *Вопросы языкознания* (Moscow), **6** (1985), 77–87.

The extreme social conditions of the second world war activated the usually imperceptible processes of language change. Technical vocabulary begins to be used in day to day speech, new words for military personnel appear. The meaning of certain words change, e.g. *eskarп* changes from *krutizna* to *protivotankovoye preoyatstviye*. The press begins to employ much new figurative imagery, *glaza i ushi armiyi*, and the use of simile and metaphor increases in newspaper reports. The use of abbreviations becomes widespread, *SU-samokhodnaya ustanovka*. New word combinations appear and parallel, more emotive words are used for equipment and personnel. *Protivotankovoye ruzh'e* becomes *Broneboinoye ruzh'e* which becomes *Broneboika*. Military vocabu-

lary begins to be employed at the place of work, *Posevniy front, trudovoi front*. This reinforces the patriotic duty of those engaged in civilian work. Folk proverbs are rewritten making reference to the Fascists. Archaic more emotive words are revived, *voin, boets, krasnoarmeets* and the word *soldat* reappears. Imported foreign words begin to gain currency, *Frits, Blitskrig*, and from the French *as* meaning a first-class fighter pilot.

The appearance of new words and word combinations in the Russian language always conformed to the basic models of existing word combinations and development. All changes, both lexical and semantic, were formed by rules particular to the Russian language as a system of communication.

Translation

87–284 Lambert, José. L'étude des traductions d'oeuvres littéraires. Propositions méthodologiques. [The study of literary translation. Some methodological considerations.] *Civiltà Italiana* (Florence), **8**, 3 (1983)/1–2 (1984), 19–32.

It is time for a fresh look at literary translation. Certain problems, present in all translation, are highlighted in literary translation: the time lag between the original message and the translation, and the fact that the two messages may have different purposes. In the first half of the 19th century Emile Littré produced a translation of the *Iliad* in 13th

century French, and Paul-Louis Courier translated Herodotus into the language of the 16th century. Both translations have to be seen in the context of the romantic revival and reaction against the classical tradition in both literature and language. The historical aspect should not be overlooked in the study of translations.

Lexicography

87–285 Arbatchewsky-Jumaire, N. and Iordanskaja, L. (U. of Montreal). 'Parties de corps' dans le *Dictionnaire explicatif et combinatoire du français contemporain*: sémantique et structure des vocables. [Parts of the body in the *DEC*: semantic and structural aspects of the words.] *Cahiers de Lexicologie* (Paris), **48**, 1 (1986), 3–25.

The article discusses two aspects of the lexicographic description of certain French words whose key lexemes denote a part of the body: (1) The semantic aspect – two problems are dealt with: (a) Which physical features of the given part of the body must be represented as semantic components in the lexicographic definition of the corresponding lexeme? (b) In what cases must the usages of a given word referring only to a function of the corresponding part of the body be described as a separate lexeme?

(2) Formal aspect – the structure of the words. The principle of homogeneity in the description of words belonging to the same lexical field is discussed. Some rules are proposed for arranging the lexemes within a word. On the basis of a description of 23 French words, a generalised word for the lexical field of parts of the body is constructed, i.e. an over-all pattern representing the typical sense system for all the words in this field.

Lexicology

87–286 Benhamon, S. Analyse dictionnaire de 'femme' et de 'homme'. [Dictionary analysis of 'femme' and 'homme'.] *Cahiers de Lexicologie* (Paris), **48**, 1 (1986), 27–67.

By analysing the entries *femme* (woman) and *homme* (man) in contemporary language dictionaries, the content of the first is shown to be depreciated and the second appreciated, and the dominant concepts concerning these two words are outlined. The author examines the entries and the order in which cases of polysemy and homonymy are treated in the article. He observes the metalanguage: indications of definitions and specific indications showing dictionary-type lumping together and confusions. He uses discourse analysis on the adjectival use of *femme*,

homme, the ambiguity of the position of the items in certain examples and quotations, the presence of certain specific characteristics, the formal presence or deletion of one of the words in the entry concerning the other and the implications of this.

The author takes account of the paradigms of the two lexical units, establishing (often by means of metaphors) the types and appearance of woman and man and their function in domestic, professional and social life.