

## *Studies of particular languages*

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**ENGLISH** See also abstract 70-114.

**70-101 Balint, Andras.** Sector analysis and idioms. *Kivung* (Boroko), 2, 1 (1969), 2-12.

An idiom is defined as a phraseological unit whose meaning cannot be arrived at from the separate meanings of the constituents of the unit. Comparison is made with Wallace Chafe's descriptions (abstract 69-97). Various contemporary systems of syntactic analysis have placed a great deal of emphasis on the description of highly abstract grammatical categories into which idioms do not easily fit. Sector analysis theory and practice is summarized and a procedure described for the handling of idioms in this framework. It is tentatively concluded that syntactically malformed idioms do not significantly differ in their behaviour from syntactically well-formed idioms. However idioms replaceable by non-idiomatic equivalents of similar syntactic structure seem to be less restricted in syntactic mobility than others. The unrestricted syntactic mobility of idiomatic verb-plus-particle combinations indicates that native speakers of English are accepting them as ordinary lexical items rather than idioms. [Examples and bibliography.]

**70-102 Bareš, Karel.** Semantic features of quantitative prefixes in technical English. *Philologica Pragensia* (Prague), 12, 3 (1969), 152-8.

Semantic analysis of prefixes shows that they denote local, temporal, quantitative and other relations and on this basis they can be classed in groups each covering a corresponding semantic area. Trnka's classification is taken as a starting point and this study is confined to an analysis of prefixes used to coin words in the sphere of numerical and quantitative relations. Examples are chiefly drawn from engineer-

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ing. Some of the prefixes show absolute synonymy, others only partial synonymy. Synonymy provides an opportunity for linguistic competition, a consequence of which is differentiation of the given morphemes at semantic and stylistic levels and a gradual ousting of one of them or relegation to certain branches of science. Competition between native and borrowed word-formative elements expressing numerical relations is very frequent in English. Synonymy between a prefix and an independent word (*semi-/half*) cannot be overlooked.

Owing to their terminological integration into technical language, quantitative prefixes conform to the common usage of technical style. Abbreviation by symbols or signs belongs here. The symbols have the combinative validity of full prefixes only when prefixed to basic units. [Examples.]

**70–103 Bolinger, D.** Entailment and the meaning of structures. *Glossa* (Burnaby, BC), 2, 2 (1968), 119–27.

Generative grammar has pointed to the failure of structuralism to account for underlying kinships among structures superficially different and underlying differences between forms superficially the same. The power of generative grammar to account for the latter has been well established. When structures are consistently identical, difference should not be assumed until the question of semantic identity has been well explored. Can two things different in form ever be the same in meaning? It is impossible to examine all constructions in order to be sure that none are absolutely synonymous. [The author examines claims of synonymy with (American) *for-to* and *-ing* complementizers.] There is a semantic contrast—sometimes along the lines of reification versus hypothesis—between nominalizations carried by *-ing* and those carried by the infinitive. Verbs such as *want* apply to unrealised possibilities and the complement is normally the infinitive. Verbs such as *enjoy* usually apply to actualities or possibilities conceived as actualities, and the complement is normally *-ing*. The deep grammar of English requires at least one additional constituent to account for the semantic contrast between *-ing* and *for-to* complements. A difference in syntactic form is always accompanied

by a difference in meaning. In deep grammar, similarities are in that portion which is common to the partially dissimilar surface structures.

**70–104 Bujas, Željko.** Frequency lists as aids in analysing the etymological composition of English. *Studia Romanica et Anglica Zagrabiensia* (Zagreb), 25/26 (1968), 129–148.

The article gives an illustrated historical survey of word counts concerned with the etymological composition of English, from the first by George Perkins Marsh (published in 1860) to A. Hood Roberts' *Statistical Linguistic Analysis of American English* published in 1965, and Kučera's and Nelson Francis' *Computational Analysis of Present-Day American English* published in 1967. Intervening counts by Dewey, *The Relative Frequency of English Speech Sounds*, 1923; E. L. Thorndike, *A Teacher's Word Book of 10,000 words*, 1921; E. E. Horn, *A Basic Writing Vocabulary*, 1926; and analyses by Ullman, Grinstead, Lindsay, Inglis and Eddy, are commented upon and their value investigated. Eddy's analyses of 1926 ended the 1920 researches and for sixteen years no new extensive analyses were attempted in the field. When they did take place they represented not an original approach but a complementation of the existing data. Carr, Owen and Schaeffer produced an article on *The Sources of English Words* in 1942 and Cassidy used the frequency list of Fawcett and Maki in his revision of S. Robertson's book *Development of Modern English* in 1954 and was among the first to make use of computers for this work.

The description of Hood Roberts' investigations is planned for a future article.

**70–105 Campbell, R. N. and R. J. Wales.** Comparative structures in English. *Journal of Linguistics* (London), 5, 2 (1969), 215–51.

The study, by a psychologist, is confined to the syntax of simple, explicitly two-place, adjectival comparatives. Recent studies have started from the assumption that the simplest comparative sentence

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derives from two base strings but there is some question as to whether there is sufficient motivation for this analysis. There seems to be confusion about the role of ambiguity and there is an argument for some comparatives being derived from complex bases. Other motivating factors are also dealt with. Derivation of a comparative by deletion conventions seems unsatisfactory as it can lead to the shorter and apparently simpler sentence of a pair rating as the more complex in terms of performances. Such a theory might jeopardize an alliance of linguists and psychologists. An analysis of English comparatives is therefore suggested, which involves neither optional deletion transformation nor a special comparative transformation, and which is acceptable from a psychological point of view.

Semantic relations are crucially involved in the structure of discourse and much semantically uninterpretable information appears in the deep structure of comparatives if the usual kind of Chomskyan analysis is followed. Absence of semantic relation between deep and surface structures in complex sentences is not a normal feature of English. A tentative semantic analysis is therefore provided, which it is hoped will re-open discussion of comparative structures. Previous analysis is believed to have given only superficial status to the linguistic expression of a fundamental intellectual operation.

**70-106 Coppeters, Rudy.** A survey of sentence patterns with 'to + infinitive'. *Revue des Langues Vivantes* (Brussels), **35**, 3 (1969), 294-312.

The survey was based on six texts, each providing 500 examples. Seven main types of *to*-infinitive were distinguished: as subject of the sentence, used predicatively, as an object or adjunct to verbs, as an adjunct to adjectives, as an adjunct to nouns and pronouns, as an adverbial adjunct, and in 'exclamatory' sentences without a finite verb. [The author distinguishes a number of sub-classes of these types and gives numerous examples. He also gives percentages of the occurrence of different types in the texts.]

**70-107 Davidsen-Nielsen, Niels.** English stops after initial /s/.  
*English Studies* (Amsterdam), 50, 4 (1969), 321-38.

[The author examines whether it is preferable to interpret the occurrence of British English stops after initial /s/ as realizations of /p t k/ or as realizations of /b d g/. Considering the problem from both phonetic and phonemic points of view, he summarizes the views of various linguists and phoneticians. He also describes in some detail perceptory, acoustic, and articulatory investigations.] The perceptory experiment showed that the sounds were closer to /b d g/ than to /p t k/. The acoustic investigation showed that stops after /s/ are unaspirated and unvoiced and that voicing is not a constant feature of /b d g/. The physiological investigation showed that /b d g/ when voiced have lower intraoral pressure than /p t k/ and /s/ but that when /b d g/ are unvoiced the three stop series have about the same intraoral air pressure. For language teaching the interpretation /sb sd sg/ seems more reasonable than /sp st sk/. For other purposes, /sp st sk/ may also be valid. Hockett's argument of symmetry is unconvincing. An exhaustive phonetic class of elements having the features 'stop closure' and 'lack of aspiration' can be set up, and this class includes /b d g/ and the stops after initial /s/ but excludes /p t k/.

**70-108 Finkenstaedt, Th. and D. Wolff.** Statistische Untersuchungen des englischen Wortschatzes mit Hilfe eines Computers. [Statistical investigation into the English vocabulary with the aid of a computer.] *Beiträge zur Linguistik und Informationsverarbeitung* (Munich), 16 (1969), 7-34.

This is an intermediate report of an investigation which has been going on since 1964. *The Shorter Oxford English Dictionary* was chosen as a basis for the investigation, supplemented by selected newspaper studies and some short stories. The resulting *Computer Lexikon* is seen as complementary to the SOED and it should enable rapid comprehension and ordering of data. The new collection of

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words has been analysed according to date of entry into the language, and language of origin [tables and graphs illustrate.] [Considerable detail of the method of selecting and sorting vocabulary is given.]

Previous research into the vocabulary of a language has been chiefly concerned with word frequency. The effort to achieve stable laws of distribution led the researchers to abandon linguistic methods and to adopt mathematical methods. These frequency counts are however only a part of the work as the *Computer Lexikon* has shown. The English newspapers studied showed no difference in the vocabulary used by the 'quality' and 'popular' press. It has been possible to prove systematic trends in speech utterances beginning from a diachronic standpoint. A study was made of the use of capital letters from the newspapers examined. The length of time a word had been in the language was directly related to the number of meanings it acquired. Zipf's law is shown to apply only to the middle range of frequency lists and this indicates that mathematics and statistics need to be used with great care on texts. Further improvement of the *Computer Lexikon* is planned and possible publication of a basic dictionary of approximately the same size as the *Advanced Learner's Dictionary*. Systematic sampling of texts will be further tested against random sampling. Scientific texts will be added. The synchronic and diachronic problem will be further studied, and as a by-product a statistical doctrine of form may be possible.

**70-109 Kalogjera, Damir.** Shall—future and time specification. *Studia Romanica et Anglica Zagrabiensia* (Zagreb), 25/26 (1968), 121-8.

The contribution of the adverbs of time, adverbial phrases and temporal clauses to the 'temporal meanings' of the English verb tenses has recently received much attention. Palmer explicitly states that the only formal feature in the distinction of various uses of certain tenses is the collocation with adverbs. Crystal has also considered the part of adverbials in establishing the temporal meanings of the main English verb tenses (English-Teaching Abstracts 1286). Although *shall* is not as frequent as *will*, both forms occur in the

construction of the future tense. It does not appear to be possible to prove that the range of temporal meanings of the two constructions is equal. The author's sample of written material has yielded 437 examples of *shall LV* (lexical verb) and *shall be LV-ing* constructions of which 102 co-occurred with adverbials and 24 constructions were specified by temporal clauses. The rest had no overt specification within the clause or sentence.

Six temporal meanings are established for *will LV-will be LV-ing* in colligation with temporal adverbials and in their absence, and *shall LV-shall be LV-ing* in a similar contextual situation shows only four temporal meanings.

The *shall LV* material which has been analysed suggests a link between certain grammatical structures and the frequency of time specifiers. Questions, second and third person subjects, and conditional sentences are analysed and it is expected that further scrutiny of *shall LV* material will uncover other links between grammatical features and the frequency of time specification.

**70-110 Kirchner, Gustav.** Detached observations on prepositional use in modern, especially American English. *Brno Studies in English* (Brno), 8 (1969), 105-10.

As dictionaries can be disappointing in the information given on contemporary prepositional usage with verbs, a study is made here, with examples and reference to sources, of present usage with the verbs *to belong*, *to centre*, *to thrill*; usage with the adjective *sick* (*at* and *to*); and typical American use of *to* and *in*.

**70-111 Marchand, Hans.** On the description of compounds. *Word* (New York), 23, 1/2/3 (1967), 379-87.

Taking into consideration morphological, grammatical and semantic aspects of the compound a satisfactory description should comprise: morphological shape, morphological structure, grammatical deep structure and semantic content. Supplementary information would be required to describe particular types. The semantic content of the

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constituents in conjunction with grammatical deep structure and morphological structure assign a meaning to a compound that only deliberate joking can alter. In most cases the grammatical relationship between two words is clear when a verb is one of the constituents. Compounds are more complicated when they lack a verbal element. The semantic content of the constituent morphemes produces a fairly predictable semantic and syntactic relation but in non-verbal nexus compounds, the grammatical relations are less in evidence than semantic patterns. [An indication is given of the classification of compounds involving two substantives as subject group, object group and adverbial complement group—more detail has been given in another article.]

The semantic content of constituent morphemes largely predicts the syntactic relation in an underlying sentence but this does not imply that stating the syntactic relations is sufficient to describe the entire deep structure. The description of underlying syntactic relations and the indication of the type of kernel sentence do not explain the content of a compound. Semantic additions (as in drawbridge) must be stated and these lie outside the syntactic structure expressed by the underlying verbal nexus. [Further examples and descriptions.]

There is a basic difference between combinations which restrict the expression of content to the underlying syntactic relations and others where the grammatical relations are combined with semantic features. It would not, however, be correct to think that the expression of grammatical relations is only characteristic of verbal nexus combinations. The adjectival type (colourblind) owes its productiveness to the predicate-object combination without additional semantic content. [Details and examples.]

**70–112** **Norwood, J. E.** Notes on some aspects of the preposition. *Philologica Pragensia* (Prague), **12**, 3 (1969), 144–51.

Prepositions occur as constituents of phrases made up of prepositions and the words they govern. In modern English they serve to signal prepositional phrases and also combine with words governed to form

subordinate sentence units of modification. Words governed are usually nominals but may be adjectives or adverbs. Showing relationship is frequently not characteristic of prepositions and should therefore not be made part of their description in English speech. A review of the historical development of prepositions seems to show that while the structure of their phrases has been stable, the way in which prepositions function has undergone and is undergoing considerable change. It also shows that in crystallized phrases it is impossible to isolate prepositional meaning from that of the semantic unit of preposition and the word it governs or signals. It may be that the day of the comprehensive lexicon of English is over and that crystallized combinations should be published in a separate phrase-book which might also include nominal combinations, such as 'call girl' and verb-adverb combinations.

**70-113 Urbain, Marcel.** The investigation of some extra-semantic features of English intonation. *Revue de phonétique appliquée* (Mons), 10 (1969), 45-63.

Research was carried out in Belgium to discover whether specific features of intonation can be reliably linked with specific attitudes or emotions of the speaker. Twelve sentences, each uttered in seven different intonations, were recorded by five native Englishmen living in Belgium, three from southern England and two from the north. [Details of equipment and method used.] An apparently consistent relationship of pitch patterns and ranges to the attitudes intended by the speakers was revealed in short utterances. In longer utterances, the relationship is less consistent. A long sentence uttered as a question is rare in British English, and when it does occur, implies mild surprise. Further progress along these lines requires a more systematic permutation of the independent variables. Speech analysis is inadequate; only methods of speech synthesis can assure the requisite degree of control.

FRENCH

- 70-114 **Barrie, William B.** Le gérondif et sa traduction en anglais. [The French gerund and its translation into English.] *Langues Modernes* (Paris), 63, 4 (1969), 46-9.

[In reply to Monin's article on the same subject (abstract 70-22) the author pays tribute to the analysis made and adds some comments, with illustrations, on a few points which he feels have been overlooked. He feels that there is more to be said on the use of gerundive preceded by *in* and invites others to pursue the investigation.]

- 70-115 **Delattre, Pierre.** L'r parisien et autres sons du pharynx. [The Parisian 'r' and other pharyngeal sounds.] *French Review* (Baltimore, Md), 43, 1 (1969), 5-22.

The consonant *r* usually occupies an important place among the phonetic characteristics of a language. This is very true of French. By the Parisian *r* is meant the normal pronunciation of northern French urban areas. X-rays have shown that the consonant is generated in the pharynx rather than being produced entirely with the back of the tongue and soft palate as was previously thought. The pronunciation of *rire*, *rare*, *Ruhr* is illustrated by cineradiographic pictures. Further pictures illustrate intervocalic *r* where the tongue describes a circular motion in producing the sounds. The acoustic effects of this circular movement are noted and also the influence of adjacent vowels and syllabic position. Variation of dialect and social milieu will produce considerable variation in position and formation of the constriction. [Further diagrams and examples, including the 'Bardot' and 'Piaf' *r*.] All types of *r* begin from a rapid contraction of the root of the tongue towards the wall of the pharynx and for this reason the description 'pharyngeal' *r* seems more appropriate than 'uvular' or 'back' *r*.

Arabic, Spanish and German also have pharyngeal sounds [illustrated by cineradiographic pictures]. The differences are noted, and finally the American *r* is illustrated so that students may learn from the obvious differences how to imitate the foreign sound.

**70-116 Guilbert, L.** Dictionnaires et linguistique: essai de typologie des dictionnaires monolingues français contemporains [Dictionaries and linguistics: an attempted typology of contemporary French monolingual dictionaries.] *Langue Française* (Paris), 2 (1969), 4-29.

The compiling of a dictionary presupposes the adoption of a theory of language. If it is intended to be an exhaustive dictionary this means that agreement must be reached between the infinite variety of meaning which can be conveyed between members of a given linguistic community and the limited number of significant forms. Many non-linguistic factors enter into the compilation of a dictionary such as the dividing line between specialist and non-specialist words, deciding when a neologism has taken its place in a language and when another word is obsolete. The kernel lexis of a language is formed by a limited number of basic verbal, nominal or adjectival forms. By transformation, these forms are adapted to a variety of grammatical categories. Convention usually dictates the choice of linguistic form of each entry; masculine is preferred to feminine form, the verb appears in the infinitive, even if this form is obsolete.

As lexicography has a place within the autonomous science of linguistics, lexical elements have to be analysed according to modern linguistic theories while conformity with tradition also has to be borne in mind.

A typology of contemporary French dictionaries follows, covering the encyclopaedic, scientific and technical, and linguistic dictionaries, and attempting to analyse each of the dictionaries and place it in the range from non-linguistic to linguistic.

It is in the field of semantic analysis that linguistics has made least progress. Linguistic method contrary to lexicographic tradition does not undertake the description of pure semanticism, but studies a unit of meaning in relation to its form and its place in an utterance. A dictionary cannot do other than describe semantic content but the combined work of linguist and lexicographer may open the way to a new type of dictionary.

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**70–117 Harmer, L.-C.** Remarques sur la ponctuation française. [Remarks on French punctuation.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), 66 (1969), 22–8.

As there appears to be a crisis in French punctuation at present as well as in the structure of the language it is worth examining the rules proposed by the manuals to see whether they are rigid or whether punctuation is largely a reflexion of personality. Certain conventions have certainly been established and the reader may be misled if the author does not adhere to them. An attempt is made here to note certain tendencies by modern authors. [Examples.] A group of words detached by a full stop from the sentence to which it grammatically belongs is often a subordinate clause. Such use of a full stop throws the reader's attention on to the detached clause. It is a device which breaks up the sentence and makes written language more closely resemble spoken language. Sometimes the flow of events is disrupted by deleting verbs and replacing them where possible with nouns.

An adjective or adverb is sometimes placed between commas and made thereby more arresting or made to act for a whole phrase. One comma, separating an adjective from its noun can give an effect of insistence. The opposite effect is also achieved by using only a comma to separate two parts of a sentence where the manuals would require a longer stop, and even by omitting a capital letter where a new sentence is expected by the reader. Brackets are sometimes used in profusion—within other brackets, and occasionally lacking one of the pair. Dashes are sometimes preferred to brackets and are even more confusing if also used instead of commas. Apollinaire did away with punctuation in some of his poetry and Mallarmé had already experimented in this way, relying on the rhythm of the verse to reveal the correct division of the words. Unpunctuated prose is a literary device, trying to convey the fluidity of thought of the characters uninterrupted by the author.

**70–118 Picoche, Jacqueline.** Réflexions sur la 'proposition infinitive'. [Thoughts on the infinitive clause.] *Français Moderne* (Paris), 37, 4 (1969), 289–300.

French grammars traditionally state that after verbs of feeling a subordinate infinitive can occur. Further analysis can cause difficulty as the object of the main verb can also act as subject of the infinitive clause (*J'entends ma fille chanter sa chanson*). Some verbs of movement could also be added to the list of constructions of this kind. Complications arise when pronouns are used giving *je la lui ai entendu chanter*. Any such sentence is very complicated to analyse and it is therefore necessary to classify as simply as possible the different types of sentence with an infinitive and an expressed agent. [Eight categories with examples.]

This presentation, while still having affinities with the old doctrine of the 'infinitive clause', offers two advantages: it distinguishes morphological and grammatical analysis, and it shows the 'infinitive clause' not as an isolated phenomenon peculiar to French but links it with the other uses of the infinitive and thence to the phenomenon of subordination in general. To achieve this end fully a complete generative grammar of French is needed, expressed in sufficiently simple vocabulary for children to handle.

## GERMAN

**70–119 Erk, Heinrich and Nadja Koshuharowa.** Das Pronomen 'es'. [The pronoun 'es'.] *Deutschunterricht für Ausländer* (Munich), 18, 1/2 (1968), 1–6.

In the course of an investigation of special uses of German at the Goethe Institut, it was noticed that one word often served to convey a number of different meanings. An example of this is the pronoun *es*, for which six different uses are noted, with a variety of constructions for each use. (1) *Es* represents the content of a previous sentence and can be replaced by 'dies'. (2) *Es*, replaceable by 'das' refers to a previously mentioned subject. (3) *Es* points forward to a following

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construction or idea and will be completed in meaning by this. (4) *Es* is simply a functional word in a sentence and may carry no specific meaning. Inversion of the sentence may cause it to disappear. (5) It may stand at the beginning of a sentence and occasionally within the sentence. (6) *Es* is an indispensable part of a syntagm even within a sentence but carries no specific meaning.

**70-120 Gottschalk, G. H.** Verb groups: a study in NHG syntax. *Lingua* (Amsterdam), **23**, 4 (1969), 327-48.

One of the most perplexing features of New High German is the position and sequence of its verbs. In studying the problem note is taken of some concepts from a statistical-historical and genetic analysis of verb order, and current usage in expository prose involving more than one verb per clause is described. A solution is proposed to the irregularities inherent in the two- or double-infinitive constructions. The sequence of verbs at the end of dependent clauses is influenced by 'end stress' with its characteristic intonation pattern, and by the rank order of dependence of the basic verb groups involved in the construction.

## ITALIAN

**70-121 Lo Cascio, Vincenzo.** Struttura, funzione, valore di 'andare + participio passato'. [Structure, function and value of 'andare + past participle'.] *Lingua e stile* (Bologna), **3**, 3 (1968), 271-93.

The locution 'andare + past participle' (*AP* or  $\pi$ ) has received the attention of a number of linguists, notably Herczeg, who maintained that the structure contains notions of passivity and necessity (though not always in the present tense), Rohlfs who finds there is necessity in only present and future tenses, and Leone who rejects the notion of passivity in favour of intransitivity. These theories are described and the internal structure of  $\pi$ , its contextual distribution, syntactic function and semantic value re-examined.

The author establishes incompatibility between  $\pi$  and transitivity ( $\pi$  always agreeing with the subject (*SN1*), *A* in number and person, *P* in gender and number, and being also incompatible with 'L' (or *lo, la, li, le, La, Le*, as object pronouns). *A* sometimes has the function of an auxiliary verb, according to formal and semantic context. There are also stereotypic uses of  $\pi$ , e.g. in scientific language. Tense, and the agreement of tenses between the speaker's starting-point and the time of the statement is another factor influencing necessity.

To establish the passive value of  $\pi$ , the author investigates what constitutes a minimum sentence in Italian—*SV* (or *SN1 + SV*, as *SN1* is always expressed if only as a morpheme of the verb). He finds that the active (*Fa*)/passive (*Fp*) dichotomy is a valid distinction in Italian. *Fp* is incompatible with 'L' in the same way as  $\pi$  is incompatible and an analysis of *Fp*, as the traditional passive sentence, or in instances when the form is not passive, or when no agent is expressed even when the form is passive, reveals that  $\pi$  fulfils all the conditions of a sub-class of *Fp*. Dubois' conclusions with regard to French are relevant at this point.  $\pi$  is defined as a transformation of an impersonal structure nevertheless retaining its own peculiarities. The variable aspects of the *AP* complex are tabulated.

**RUSSIAN** See also abstract 70–92.

**70–122 Dalchow, Regine G.** Simple adjectives in 'ushch-/ashch' in modern Russian. *Slavic and East European Journal* (Madison, Wisconsin), 13, 3 (1969), 358–62.

Full listing and discussion of the forty-four participial adjectives in modern Russian. Formal distinction can be made between participial adjectives which must or can be prefixed with *ne* and those which cannot. There are twenty-four of the former and sixteen of the latter. The function of the particle *ne*, the derivation, lexical properties, stress and grammatical properties of participial adjectives are discussed in some detail.

- 70-123 Drage, C. L.** Some data on modern Moscow pronunciation. *Slavonic and East European Review* (London), **46**, 107 (1968), 353-82.

The data noted in this article are taken from tape-recordings made by seventeen native Russians who had spent all or most of their lives in Moscow. Some 1,200 short Russian sentences were read at their habitual conversational speed. The results are recorded and tabulated bearing in mind the age groups; the older speakers were 40-65 years of age, the younger 22-36 years of age. Points which are studied are: the assimilation of consonants in voice and voicelessness; assimilation between prepositions and following words; assimilations between proclitics and enclitics and the words to which they adhere; assimilations between words of independent standing; assimilations between the first, abbreviated portion of a compound word and its second portion; combinations of a final, hard consonant of a preceding word with an initial *u* of a following word; regressive palatalization of consonants; combinations of two, three and four consonants; dissimilation in the manner of formation of consonants; regressive and progressive dissimilations, the pronunciation of the reflexive particles *-ся* and *-сь* in certain positions, and the pronunciation of hard consonants before *e* and of consonantal combinations in some Russian words of foreign origin. Among a few miscellaneous points, the pronunciations of *щ*, *ux* and *ум* are considered. Some general conclusions on speech trends are drawn from the points observed.

- 70-124 Efremova, M.** Опыт составления словаря морфем русского языка. [An experiment in compiling a dictionary of Russian morphemes.] *Русский язык в национальной школе* (Moscow), **4** (1969), 7-15.

A review of past attempts to construct dictionaries of Russian morphemes leads to the suggestion that insufficient attention has been paid to morphemic sequencing and to basic models of morphemic units in word construction.

Using these two criteria, two possible approaches to the compila-

tion of a dictionary of Russian morphemes are discussed. The structuring of the two resulting types of dictionary proceeds by means of complex numerical annotations applied to both root morphemes and affixal morphemes.

[Diagrams, lists and schemes provide ample illustration of the points discussed.]

**70-125** **Worth, Dean S.** Grammatical function and Russian stress. *Language* (Baltimore, Md) **44**, 4 (1968), 784-91.

Russian stress alternations are usually considered to be unrelated to grammatical meanings but this seems to be true only on the phonemic level. An analysis of such alternations in terms of underlying morpho-phonemic entities and ordered rules makes it clear that (1) Russian stress shifts are correlated with the grammatical categories of number and case, and that (2) all stress shifts in the substantive can be described by a single rule with varying environmental conditions. By listing the unmarked singular stem in the lexicon, generating the plural stem from it, and then generating the several case forms within each number stem, a simplification of the stress-shift rules is achieved. Russian words hitherto considered as exceptional can now be covered as members of a single class.

## SPANISH

**70-126** **Skelton, R. B.** The pattern of Spanish vowel sounds. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **7**, 3 (1969), 231-7.

Hitherto Spanish vowel phonemes have been assumed to have internal variations caused by adjacent consonants and conditions of stress, and yet to be quite separate from each other even when spoken by a wide range of people. The sound spectrograph, which measures areas of resonance on an absolute frequency scale reveals that this is not so.

In an experiment, twenty native Spanish and Spanish American speakers pronounced 1,700 utterances containing all the vowels

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under different conditions of stress and it was found that there was an overlap of less than 10 per cent between adjacent phonemes. Unaccented intertonic and final vowels always overlapped, some as far as the centroid of the neighbouring phoneme. The utterances showed a tendency to group themselves about the mean and diminish in number as they moved away from the centre.