INTERFERENCE OF FIRST LANGUAGE VERBAL SYSTEM ON SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

CENTRE FOR NEWFOUNDLAND STUDIES

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GLENN LOVELESS

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by

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A THESIS

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this particular study was to examine how an Anglophone's knowledge of the verbal system of his native language was a source of interference in his learning and use of the French verbal system within the realms of tense, mood, and aspect.

In order to understand how an English-speaker's knowledge of the English verbal system can interfere with his learning and utilization of the French verbal system it was necessary to have a description of the two verbal systems. Thus, Chapter One was devoted to a description of the English verbal system, and Chapter Two the French verbal system. Then, the final four chapters were given to an examination of verbal interference from English.

In order to undertake the study of verbal interference from English, examination papers of students completing their first, second and third semesters of university studies were examined. From the essays in these papers were elicited student errors which demonstrated that an Anglophone's knowledge of the English verbal system does, in fact, interfere with his learning and use of the French verbal system. The evidence indicating English verbal interference was deduced from the fact that structures of the English verbal system, which were not common to both languages, were applied incorrectly to the French verbal system.

Differences in the content systems of the French and English verbal systems are the real source of verbal interference from English. So, the theories of Gustave Guillaume, which he applied to the content system of the French verb and which Hirtle and Hewson (in part) applied to the content system of the English verb were used to explain the verbal interference from English.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to take this opportunity to express my sincere thanks to my Supervisor, Dr. John Hewson, for his invaluable assistance throughout the preparation of this thesis and to Mrs. Catherine Au for typing the manuscript.

FOREWORD

One of the greatest problems facing teachers and students of second languages is native-language interference. When a student undertakes the study of a second language, a knowledge of his native language is brought to the learning situation. When the structures of the second language differ from those of the learner's native language, there is, quite often, interference of native-language structures on the learning and understanding of second language structures.

A very complex part of speech in the Indo-European languages is the verb. Quite often the real reason for a particular verbal form being utilized in a language is very difficult to determine. Many linguists have attempted to determine why a particular form is used by giving reasons from the surface structures, while the real reason for a particular form appearing in discourse is determined by the underlying content system of that language.

Perhaps no other person has had such insights into the content system of the French verbal system as the French linguist, Gustave Guillaume. His theories have been taken and applied to the English verbal system, in part by Hewson, and extensively by Hirtle, and these theories have cast considerable light on the English verb. Because of the application of Guillaume's theories to the English and French verbal systems, one can explain, much more suitably, many aspects of the verbal systems.

The aim of this work is to examine the English and French verbal systems in the areas of <u>tense</u>, <u>mood</u>, and <u>aspect</u>, and to show how an Anglophone's knowledge of the English verbal system interferes with the learning of the French verbal system within these three areas. Thus, Chapter One is devoted to a description of the English verbal system, and

Chapter Two describes the French verbal system. Then, Chapter Three examines the way in which the English verbal system interferes with an Anglophone's acquiring of the French tense system. In Chapter Four we have a brief examination of modal interference from English. Chapter Five is given to an examination of the moods in English and French and of how the English moods - mainly indicative mood - interfere with one's comprehension of the moods - mainly subjunctive mood - in the French verbal system. Finally, we see, very briefly, in Chapter Six, how the English verbal system is a source of interference when an Anglophone attempts a study of the French aspect system.

It is hoped that by identifying the problem areas and sources of interference from the English verbal system that teachers of French as a second language will be able, more successfully, to anticipate student errors and thus create exercises which will enable students to avoid these mistakes. If teachers can anticipate errors and offer varied exercises to help students avoid (or overcome) them, second language teaching and learning will be more successful.

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CHAPTER ONE

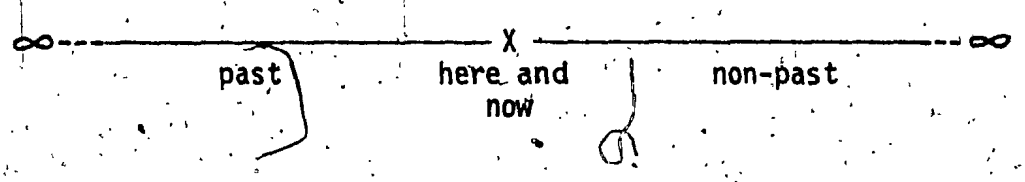
TENSE, MOOD, AND ASPECT OF THE ENGLISH VERB

1.1 Introduction

The purpose of this particular paper being to show that a native speaker's knowledge of the English verb interferes with his learning of the French verb in the areas of tense, mood, and aspect, this first chapter will attempt to describe these three realms with relation to the English verbal system. The particular point of view taken in presenting the description is Guillaumian.[1]

1.2 Tense

A very common mistake of grammarians has been to confuse tense and time. It has long been a well-known scientific fact that no two bodies can contemporaneously occupy the same space; Einstein has also shown that no two bodies can occupy the same time. Thus, both space and time are really only relative to the individual involved in an event. So, time really has no past, present, or future; these are only relative to the consciousness of the individual in an event. English, it is true, has the means of expressing past, present, and future time, but this is not always done by means of tense. A modified diagram from Jesperson (Jesperson 1964:230) will help to illustrate the difference between tense and time by showing the tenses in English.



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[1] Guillaume's description was of the French verb, but his theory has been applied to English by Hirtle and Hewson, who are the main sources for this chapter.

Grammarians often speak of future tense when what they are really referring to is future time. For the purpose of this paper, when talking of tense, the reference will be to single morphological forms used to indicate time zones; English has only two (2) tense forms - past and non-past.

The means by which English represents time in the indicative is quite different from that of the Romance Languages. English has only two tenses, but French shows five (5) indicative tenses to represent time:

Je parle
Je parlais
Je parlai
Je parlerais
Je parlerai

But, to make up for the very limited number of tense forms, English uses a system of aspect whereby one uses "an auxiliary for the verb form and a verbal (infinitive or participle) for the lexical content" (Hewson 1972:79). For example:

I am working
I have worked
I shall work
I had worked
I have been working
I had been working
I will have worked
I will have been working
I may have worked
I shall be working

So, forms such as I talk and I talked are marked for tense but unmarked for

aspect, while the compound forms such as the above are marked for both tense and aspect.

As was previously stated, English has only two tenses - past and non-past. For example, I talk and I speak are non-past, but they are not normally used to represent the experiential present because they include in their representation the rest of non-memorial time as well.

(1) I talk too much.

(2) I speak to the class every week.

Both (1) and (2) refer to events that do not happen at the time the speaker is talking - "here and now". This usage demonstrates a common usage of the non-past. Both of the above sentences have an air of permanency about them, unlike a sentence such as

(3) I am talking too much.

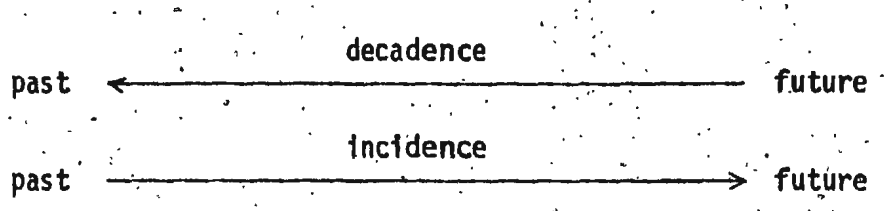
which seems to refer more closely to the present which lacks the feeling of permanency. To refer to the present, a verb form must indicate lack of permanency since the present (here and now) is only a threshold (this will be discussed later) separating past and non-past.

1.2.1 Two Views of Time

A Guillaumian approach to language which excludes the terms incidence and decadence would certainly be very difficult, since they are basic to his discussion of how language functions. Guillaume applied these two terms to his study of the French verb; we shall now attempt to apply them to the English verbal system. First, however, a brief description of incidence and decadence is necessary.

Guillaume says that incidence is "celui [le niveau] du temps arrivant; ...le niveau de décadence: celui du temps arrivée" (Guillaume 1971a: 94).

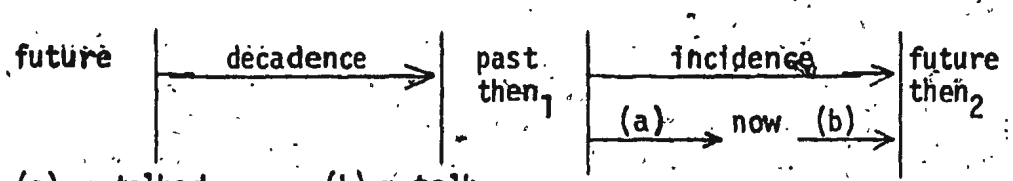
So, the level of incidence represents time as accumulating from the past towards the future, while the level of decadence gives the view of time as unrolling from the future into the past. In a diagram from Hewson 1972: 64:



The following analogy by Hewson (1973) will help clarify the situation. "A useful analogy may be made with the hour glass: the grain of sand as it arrives in the lower chamber from the upper, momentarily raises the level of sand in the lower chamber (incidence); as it is buried by further grains of sand, it sinks lower in the steadily accumulating pile (decadence). Without altering its material position it can be seen from either of the contrastive upstream/downstream views" (Hewson 1973: 10). Such a contrast as the incidence/decadence one is typical of the binary contrasts utilized by Guillaume in his models of underlying content systems.

1.2.2 Past and Non-past

It is very important to note at this point that the division of time spheres in English is not represented as in decadence, but rather as from the point of view of incidence (see Hewson 1972: 65).



(a) = talked; (b) = talk

English through its two tenses does not represent time as starting from the future and extending into the past. "Consequently events expressed through the medium of the two basic tenses are seen as unfolding toward their conclusion: they have a beginning, middle, and end. They have therefore an

overtone of the perfective; they represent a complete event, a fact which only the aspect of incidence can offer" (Hewson 1972: 65). For example

(4) I talk too much.

(5) I talked too much.

in (4) we have represented an event which is a permanent quality of the person speaking; implicitly, this event began in the past and this state of affairs (talking too much) may continue to exist into the future. In (5) the event began in the past, developed towards the future and ended. In (4) "the verb depicts the existence of a state at a particular instant" (Hirtle 1967: 46), leaving the preceding and succeeding portions implicit. So, both represent time as in incidence.

It is because incidence offers a view of an event from its initial to its final moment that the two basic tenses of English express a materially complete event. In

(6) He shoots! He scores!

the event of scoring is necessarily a materially complete event. "Being confronted with the action as a whole [scoring is finished], the speaker feels it to be non-prospective and so expresses it as perfective by means of the simple form,..." (Hirtle 1967: 38). Hirtle makes a very clear and useful contrast of the simple and progressive in discourse that illustrates the simple past tense used for completed events (Hirtle 1967: 27):

(7) When the bomb exploded, he went into the basement.

(8) When the bomb exploded, he was going into the basement.

From (7) we know that (a) he went into the basement after the explosion, and (b) he made it into the basement. Also in (7) the event is seen from the level of incidence, giving us an exterior view of the event. From (8) we

are told that he was on his way into the basement when the bomb exploded, but we are not told if he made it there. In (7) the event is completed; in (8) it is incomplete.

1.2.3 Present

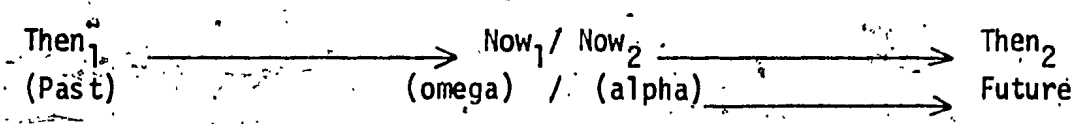
Having established that there are two tenses in English, past and non-past, and that these represent an event as unrolling from its beginning to its completion (as in incidence), it is necessary at this point to consider what separates the past and non-past: the present. Exactly what is the present and what form may it have in discourse?

(9) I walk to school.

The event in (9) is not present in that one would not expect the event so represented to be taking place here and now. To express the event as happening "at this very moment" one needs to say

(10) I am walking to school.

In English the experiential present (here and now) is represented as a threshold comprised of the last moment of memorial time and the very first moment of non-memorial time (see Hewson 1972: 68):



Note that the omega moment of the present is seen as belonging to the past, while the alpha moment is represented as belonging to the future. Consequently one sometimes finds a simple past tense form used to express the present:

(11) This is the first time I ever ate caviar.

It is also possible to find instances of the non-past used to refer to the

future:

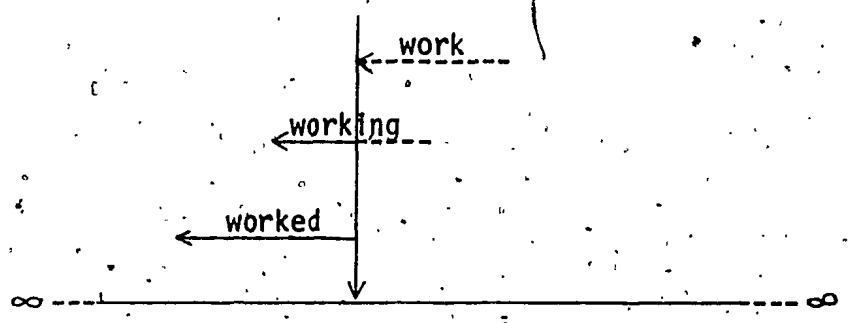
(12) I'll ask him when he comes in.

These types of statements are possible because of the very nature of the underlying tense system of English, and the way in which the experiential present is represented in the system.

1.3 Mood

1.3.1 Quasi-nominal Mood

In English there are three moods: quasi-nominal,[2] subjunctive, and indicative. "The quasi-nominal mood has three tenses: the infinitive, which presents an event whose whole development is seen in the offing, as event time which has not yet reached the point in universe time when it is to be actualized; the present participle, which represents a partly developed event...; and the past participle whose event is over, seen in retrospect as event time which has already existed" (Hirtle 1967: 16-17). A diagram represents them as follows (Hirtle 1967: 17):



"Thus in the English quasi-nominal mood it is the descending movement of universe time which, in the absence of a subject, brings events from the

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[2] Hirtle 1967: 16, fn. 29. "The quasi-nominal mood is so named because of its position in the system of tongue at the borderline between the verb and the noun system. Thanks to this position, the tenses of the quasi-nominal mood can have noun and adjective functions in discourse."

'not yet' to their actualization and carries them on into the 'already' " (Hirtle 1967: 17).

It is very important to note that the quasi-nominal mood, which lacks a subject and event time, can be situated anywhere in universe time. At this stage in the chronogenesis [3] of the English verb, time is not yet divided into memorial and non-memorial time; there is really only a large stretch of universe time which at any instant can be converted into the 'already'.

1.3.2 Subjunctive Mood

The second stage in the chronogenesis of the verb is the subjunctive. At this point in its development the verb has the element of person added which gives the action an event time (but no time sphere). "In the English verbal system such an event is... not represented as being related in any way to our own personal empirical experience of time, and remains a potential, theoretical, unallocated event" (Hewson 1967: 70).

Before going into a Guillaumian description of the subjunctive and how it operates, it is preferable to consider its morphological and syntactic forms. The subjunctive is identical morphologically to the indicative except for (a) the verb to be and (b) the third person singular form where the subjunctive lacks -s:

(13) It is necessary that I be home early. (subjunctive)

(14) I demand that he withdraw the statement. (subjunctive)

(15) I am home early. (indicative)

(16) If he withdraws the statement... (indicative)

In (13) and (14) we have the subjunctive forms (I be, he withdraw) which

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[3] See Hirtle 1967: 20 for a definition of chronogenesis.

are different from the indicative (I am, he withdraws). Besides be as in (13) the verb to be has a past form which is distinctive for the subjunctive:

(17) If I were you... (subjunctive)

(18) I was at the theatre. (indicative)

Note, however, that the verb to be is the only English verb to have a distinct morphological form for the past subjunctive.

Most grammars of English also note certain other syntactic peculiarities of the subjunctive: (a) lack of do in the negative;

(19) I demand that he not withdraw the statement. (subjunctive)

(20) If he does not withdraw the statement... (indicative)

(b) the usual order of tenses is not followed;

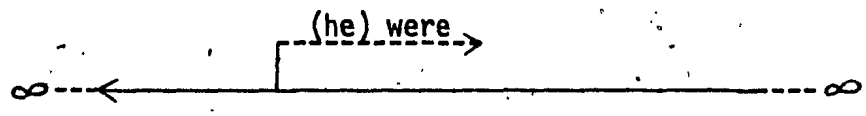
(21) I insisted that she be home early. (subjunctive)

(22) I insisted that she was home early. (indicative).

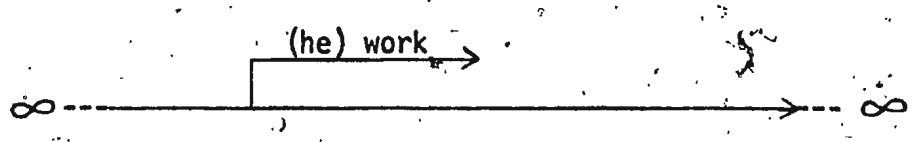
These then are the morphological forms and syntactic features which are peculiar to the subjunctive.

The fact that the subjunctive is identical in form, in most cases, with the morphology of the indicative mood is probably one reason why people like Kruisinga (1941) say that one is not justified to say the subjunctive exists in English (Harsh 1966: 25).

In the simple English tenses, as was previously stated, all action is seen as in incidence - it is seen to unroll in the direction of the future. "In the past subjunctive this capacity of the subject [to cause action to be seen at the level of incidence] is countered by universe time which is still represented as descending toward the past" (Hirtle 1967: 18).

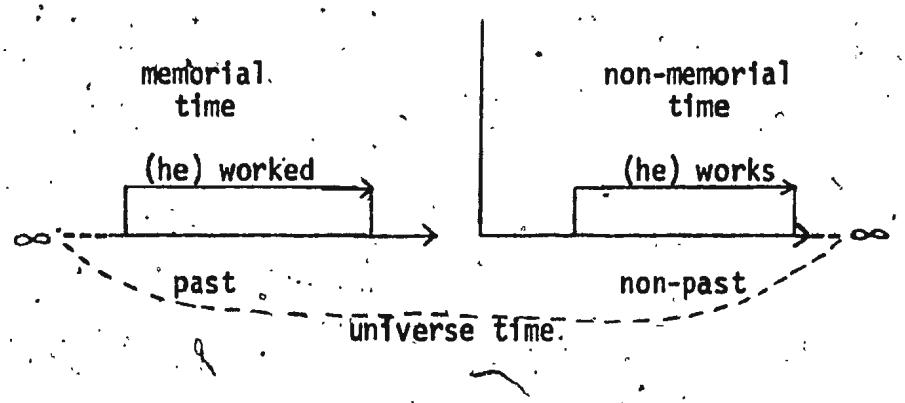


"In the present subjunctive, on the other hand, the movement of universe time has been reversed so that it is now seen to be ascending toward the future" (Hirtle 1967: 18). As a result of this representation the event is seen as unrolling toward a real existence in time. But, as was previously stated, since the subjunctive has only event time and does not establish time spheres it can only become a potential event:



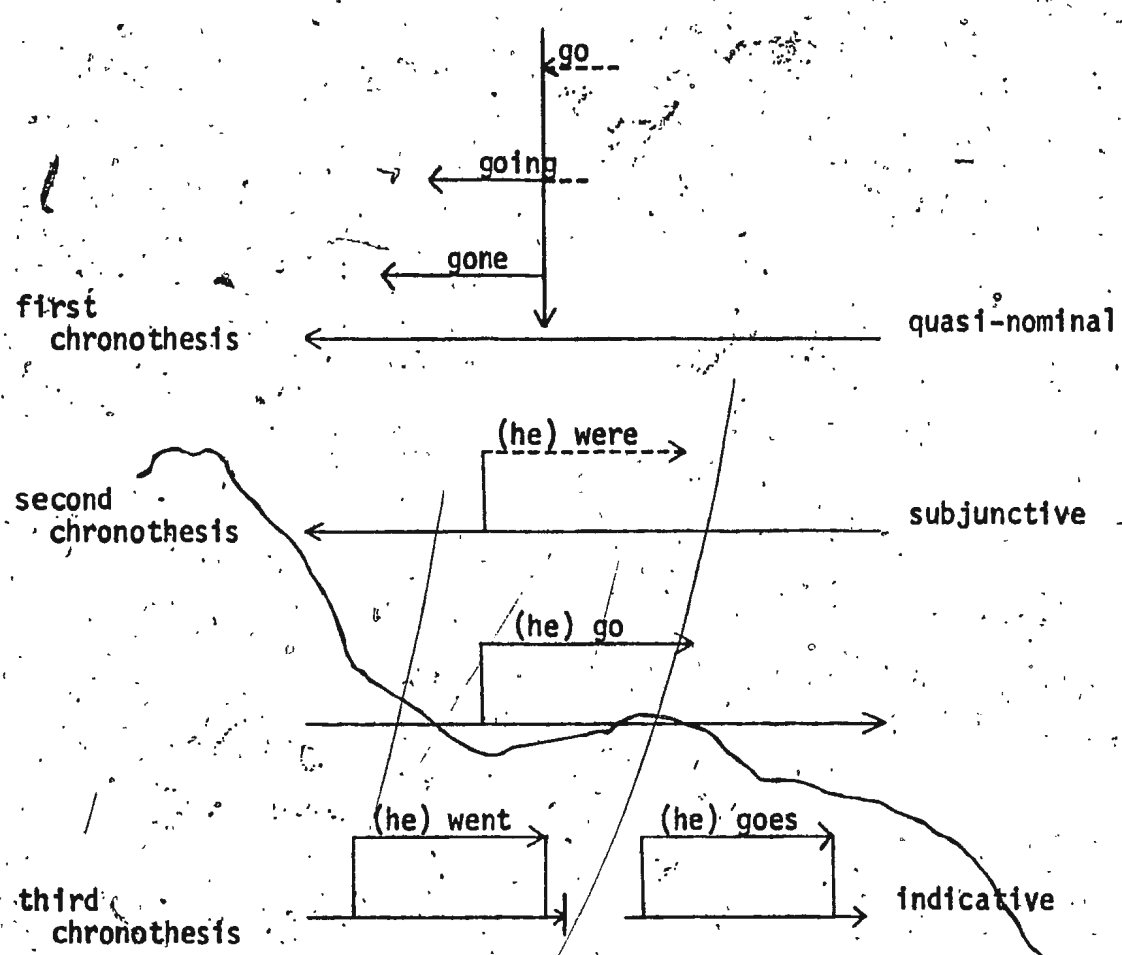
1.3.3 Indicative Mood

Finally, we come to the third stage in the chronogenesis of the verb, where universe time is divided into two (2) time spheres - the indicative mood. At this stage the event is represented as having not only form but also actuality. In the indicative mood an event is situated either in memorial time or non-memorial time, which is separated by the threshold - the here and now. It is only when the chronogenesis has reached this stage that the development of the verb is complete. A diagrammatical representation of the indicative mood in English would be as follows:



1.3.4 Summary of the Moods

To summarize the chronogenesis of the English verb, the following diagram (Hirtle 1967: 20):



1.4 Aspect

Although English has only two tenses (past and non-past) to represent divisions of time, English does have the means of representing more than two time divisions. To make up for its lack of tenses, English makes use of a system of aspect whereby an auxiliary and a verbal are combined.

"There are two main sets of aspectual forms, distinguished by the morphology of the auxiliary involved. The two sets of auxiliaries are called the grammatical auxiliaries and the modal auxiliaries" (Hewson 1972: 79). According to F. R. Palmer (Palmer 1965: 19) there are eleven auxiliaries in English - be, have, do (grammatical auxiliaries) will, shall, can, may, must, ought, dare, and need (modal auxiliaries). But, most grammarians question the

final three - people like Paul Roberts (Roberts 1968: 72) and Yoshinobu Hakutani (Linguistics 90: 11-19). Even Palmer shows that their use as auxiliaries may be objected to. Leaving aside the arguments for or against their inclusion, I shall go ahead and consider the formal characteristics of the auxiliaries, starting with the modals. The modals are morphologically similar to the subjunctive in that (a) the third person singular does not take -s:

(23) He can play hockey.

(24) She must go home.

(b) they have no infinitive or participle forms

(25) *maying; *shalling

(c) they have no imperative;

(26) *Must!

(27) *Ought!

(d) they do not require the use of the grammatical auxiliary do in negatives and interrogatives. For example,

(28) Must he go?

(29) Will you be there at nine?

(30) You need not be there at all.

(31) He may not leave the room.

(28) - (31) do not utilize do.

1.4.1 Grammatical Auxiliaries

Except for do, however, which may not be used in the infinitive or participle form (as an auxiliary)

(32) *done talk; *to do talk

the grammatical auxiliaries have all the morphological forms of the

ordinary verb. Here, however, they (do, be, have) will be considered only in their functions as auxiliaries.

As stated above, the auxiliary do may not be used either in infinitive or participle forms, possibly because it takes the infinitive without to as its verbal content. "Since the content of the two participles is formed from the content of the infinitive (and not vice versa) we may expect a resistance not only between the dependent content infinitive (i.e. talk), and a governing grammatical infinitive (i.e. (to) do), but also between the content infinitive (talk) and any other governing grammatical content derived from the infinitive, which includes both participles (doing and done)" (Hewson 1972: 80).

(33) *doing talk

(34) *done talk

The auxiliary do is used mostly with verbs to form the negative and interrogative, as in

(35) I write; I do not write; Do I write

(36) I sang; I did not sing; Did I sing

However, with other auxiliaries do is not necessary.

(37) I may not go; *I do not may go

(38) Have I gone; *Did I have gone

The role of the auxiliaries is to bring grammatical form rather than lexical content to the verbal arrangement. Thus Guillaume says that the auxiliaries have undergone dematerialization and have lost a great deal of their lexical content. But, all lexical content is not lost or the auxiliaries would have become merely inflections (Guillaume 1971a: 144-148).

Do as an auxiliary seems to have suffered the greatest loss of content

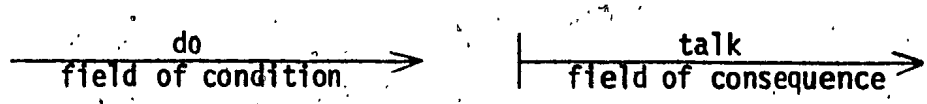
of any of the grammatical auxiliaries. The meaning of do is very broad and it is very often used as a "pro-verb" for other verbs. "To do something" means "to carry it out" as in

(39) He went and so did I.

But, even this function is lost in sentences such as the following:

(40) They work harder than you do.

In (40) do merely represents the grammatical "carrying out in time (in incidence) of the content of the replaced verb or of the dependent infinitive" (Hewson 1972: 81). Do, being very abstract, represents only the grammatical conditions of the infinitive and the infinitive carries the content (see Hewson 1972: 82).



As was previously stated, the infinitive form carries the lexical content of the verb; the grammatical auxiliaries are used to express the grammatical conditions for the representation of the event. Do is used mainly as an auxiliary in negation and interrogation, which call into question the occurrence of the event. By "using do as a buffer" (Hewson 1972: 82) the queried or denied event is not predicated directly of the subject. This, then, brings an end to our consideration of do as an auxiliary.

Before discussing the auxiliaries be and have it is necessary to discuss the two verbal aspects (views) of English: immanent aspect and transcendent aspect. The immanent aspect is concerned with the interiority of event time. This aspect does not permit the mind to "go beyond the end of the event" (Hirtle 1963: 213). Thus, if an event is seen as "something

nascent, involving a coming-to-be, a development tending towards its realization..." (Hirtle 1967: 15) we have the immanent aspect. There are thus several possibilities: "the speaker can represent the whole of the action from beginning to end, e.g. He read the book; or he can represent only part of the action, implying the rest as a possible accomplishment, e.g. He was reading the book; or the event can be evoked as a whole yet to be actualized in time, e.g. He didn't read the book. The important thing in the immanent aspect is that... the representation involves the interior of the event" (Hirtle 1967: 15).

As for the transcendent aspect, it involves the aftermath of an event. "In the transcendent aspect the standpoint of the mind is no longer within the confines of the time occupied by the event but beyond the instant when the event-time expires. This new position is declared by the auxiliary have;..." (Hirtle 1963: 213). With it there are two possibilities in English: "The whole of the event can be depicted as lying behind the result phase, e.g. He has read the book; or only part of the event may be represented as having produced the result, e.g. He has been reading the book" (Hirtle 1967: 15). (See the diagrams on the next page.)

It is important to note that aspect as mentioned in the previous two paragraphs, the different views of an event, is not what we are talking about when speaking of aspectual forms. The immanent and transcendent aspects are really referring to two different notional views of the same event (psychisme - mental representation). The aspectual forms (auxiliary plus verbal) - semiology - are used in English to express differences of time that cannot be expressed by the two tenses.

It is interesting to note that the transcendent view of an event, when an event is viewed from its exterior, utilizes have as its auxiliary.

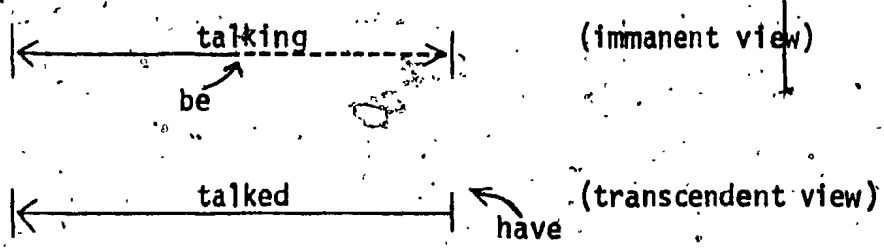
However, be gives a view of an event from its interior, so it is the auxiliary used to express interiority to the materiality of the event. Thus, "...the lexical relationship between these two verbs be and have may be expressed in binary terms" (Hewson 1972: 83).

be	have
immanent view of existence (existence)	transcendant view of existence (essence)
man confronted by time.	man confronting time
(intransitive)	(transitive)

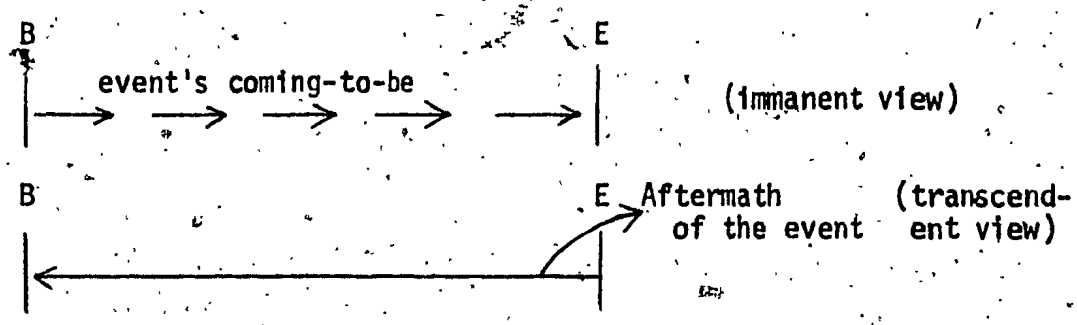
The related verbals may also be placed in binary contrast.

talking	talked
interior view of the materiality of the event (immanence)	exterior view of the materiality of the event (transcendence)

The following two diagrams make the two views of an event clearer: Hewson 1972: 83 contrasts the two views as follows:



while Hirtle 1967: 16 represents the contrast between the simple and the transcendent as follows:



When we consider the auxiliaries be and have in detail, the first important point to be made about them is that they are utilized in all the aspectual verb forms. Be, as an auxiliary, being dematerialized and bringing very little lexical content, expresses the notion of "interiority to the immanence of the materiality of an event" (Hewson 1972: 83); it also brings the grammatical conditions for representation of an event within the realm of experience. Have, on the other hand, expresses exteriority to the transcendence of the materiality of the event, as seen in the diagrams on the previous page.

Next to be discussed are the progressive and perfect (be and have aspectual forms respectively) in English. As will be seen in the ensuing discussion each form (be or have) may be used to express different views of an event and to produce different effects.

Non-Progressive	Progressive	Perfect
(to) strike	(to) be striking	(to) have struck
striking	*being striking	having struck
struck	being struck	*have struck
(that he) strike	(that he) be striking	(that he) have struck
He strikes	He is striking	He has struck
He struck	He was striking	He had struck
He will strike	He will be striking	He will have struck
He would strike	He would be striking	He would have struck
He is struck	He is being struck	He has been struck
He was struck	He was being struck	He had been struck

One may note that the progressive indicates an event with open perspective, while the non-progressive indicates the representation of an event as

something closed. The progressive is used (a) to indicate an event that is not yet finished or of which one is uncertain whether it might continue,

(41) He is striking the boy.

(42) He had been waiting for hours.

(b) to represent the materiality of an event in progress,

(43) The world is turning on its axis.

or (c) to lay emphasis upon the subject, with possible contrast with the simple, as in

(44) She is lying on the couch. At the side of the couch sits a woman as in grief. (Ex. collected by Hirtle)

In (44) the woman lying on the couch is the central figure - this is done linguistically through the use of the progressive. The progressive, by bringing in the spatial as well as the temporal parameter, can emphasize the central figure involved in an event. Also, since be views an event from its interior, the figure involved is emphasized.

We may now contrast the progressive with the perfect which, since it necessarily contains have, represents the transcendent view of an event. In contrast to the progressive, the perfect is used to indicate an event as seen from its exterior. In the perfect it is the tense of have which determines the time in the whole verbal phrase. For example,

(45) He has walked to work.

is non-past (present perfect), but it has past reference. To further clarify this point, it can be demonstrated that one cannot use a past adverb with the present perfect without making the sentence awkward.

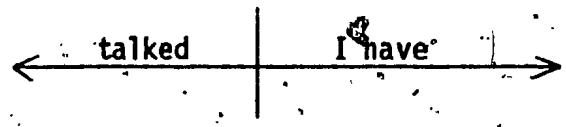
(46) *He has walked to work three times last week.

(47) He has walked to work three times this week.

The fact that the present perfect requires a non-past adverb illustrates that

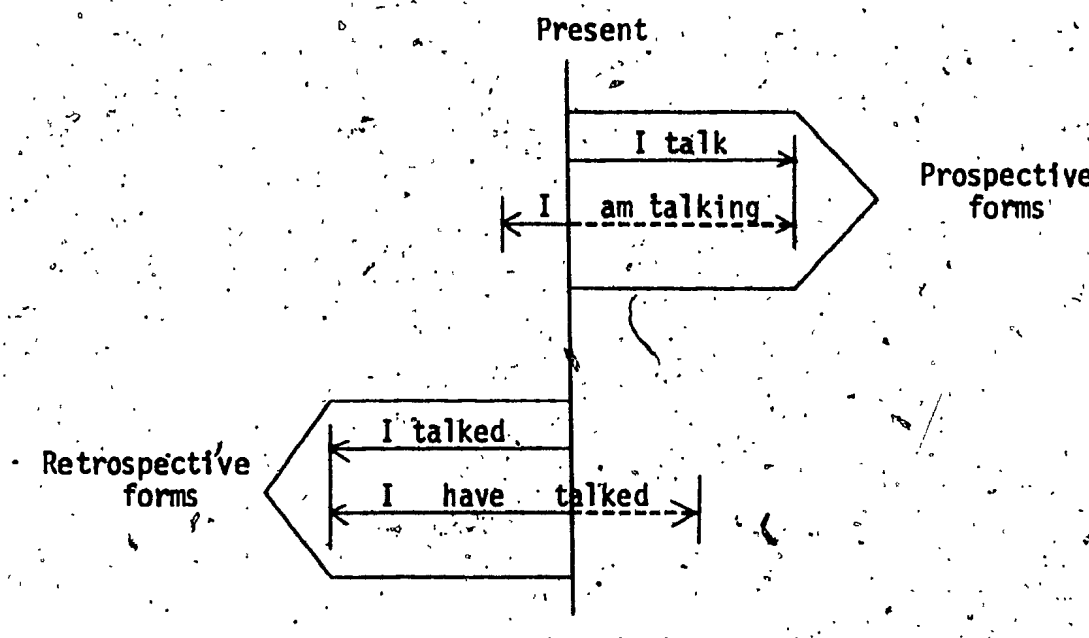
it is not past tense. It does, however, succeed in representing the event as over (révolu) in the present; in order to be over, an event must have already occurred in the immediately preceding space of time.

The transcendent view of an event represents the event itself at the level of decadence, since the past participle is wholly in decadence.

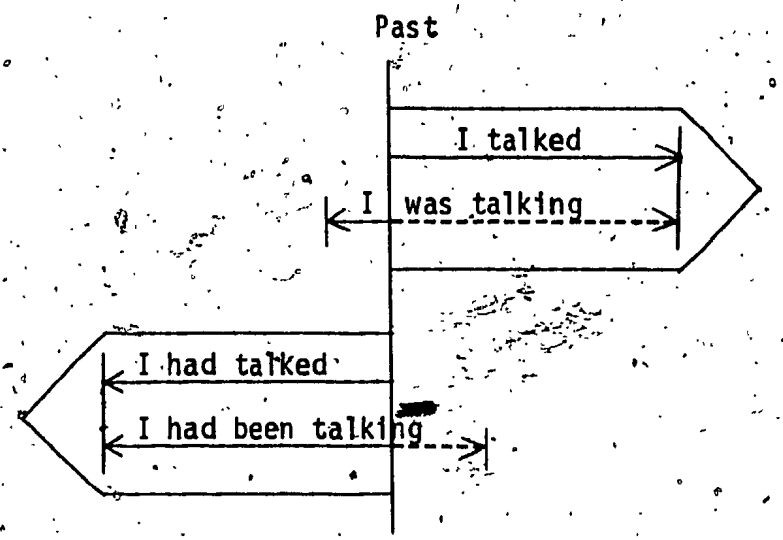


English represents time in the verbal system as something which continues on into the future. The following three diagrams (from Hewson 1972: 88) will illustrate the various views of an event:

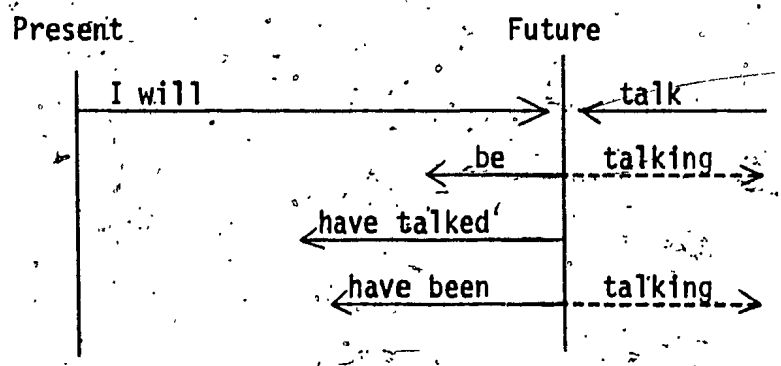
(a) at the level of the non-past



(b) The same aspectual effects are found with the same basic morphology in the past-tense:



(c) The same is true for the verb forms constructed with a modal auxiliary:



The progressive, in the preceding, indicates an event which is represented as being partially complete. Since the event is left open for completion, it can only be completed in the future. But the progressive also indicates an event which had its beginning in the past and so contains both "accomplissement" and "accompli".

1.4.2 Modal Auxiliaries

Having considered the system of the grammatical auxiliaries, we shall now consider the use of the modal auxiliaries in the English verbal system. According to Palmer, for a verb to qualify as a modal it must meet his four conditions which he calls negation, inversion, code, and emphatic affirmation (Palmer 1965: 19-26). Palmer says that the reason for much of the

controversy over the use of ought, need, and dare as modals springs from the fact that they do not meet all of his criteria.

Ought and must refer only to the present, but with ought + have one can create a past reference.

(48) He ought to come. (non-past reference)

(49) He ought to have come. (past reference)

(50) Must you cry?

Must has no past reference, since He must have come still has present reference. To get past reference one has to change the verb to had to.

(51) I must go. (non-past reference)

(52) I had to go. (past reference)

As for dare and need, which are the most often objected to as modals, their use as modals and full verbs will be contrasted to show that they certainly are modals in certain cases.

(53) He does not dare to write her. (verb)

(54) He dare not write her. (auxiliary)

(55) He does not need to try. (verb)

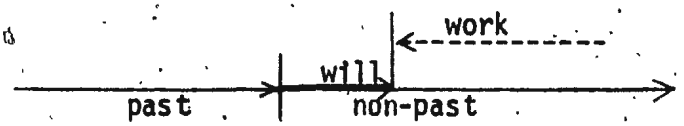
(56) He need not try. (auxiliary)

Need and dare, when used as full verbs, take to before a following infinitive, while they do not take to when used as auxiliaries.

WILL and SHALL

The modals will and shall deserve special consideration since they are the auxiliaries used by speakers of English to form the future. As was stated previously, English does not have a future tense, and thus has to form the future by means of auxiliaries. "It is the role of the auxiliary (will or shall) to occupy a stretch of the non-past, as large or as small as may be

useful, so that the event (expressed by the infinitive) must be situated just beyond this stretch. The future is formed by placing the event outside the portion of the non-past occupied by the auxiliary" (Hirtle 1963: 112). The following diagram (from Hirtle 1963: 112) will help make the concept clearer:



So, the auxiliaries will and shall play a very important role in expressing future time, as in

(57) I will go tomorrow.

They may also combine with be and have to form the progressive and perfect

(58) I shall be going tomorrow.

(59) I will have gone tomorrow.

In American usage there is a growing tendency not to distinguish between will and shall - in my own speech I feel no difference in their usage and in most cases I use them interchangeably. But in many parts of the English-speaking world the difference between them is still felt. For example, as Hewson points out (Hewson 1972: 90), in

(60) Shall I open the window?

the speaker is asking someone (external to himself) if he is obliged to open the window - the decision is left up to someone else. But in asking

(61) Will I open the window?

the speaker is uncertain as to what he should do and has not yet made up his own mind.

As can be gathered from (60) and (61), both of the auxiliaries have to do with determination - shall being representative of external determination

and will representative of internal determination. When a speaker expresses determination upon himself, it is internalized; being internalized he makes up his own mind as to whether or not he intends to do something. But, when a speaker expresses his determination upon someone else, his determination is externalized.

CAN and MAY

For many speakers of English the distinction between can and may is also diminishing but, at least in my own speech, the distinction is clearer than that between will and shall. Can and may both deal with potentiality, as in

(62) May I carry your books?

(63) Can I carry your books?

(64) I can run a mile in four minutes.

(65) I may run a mile in four minutes.

From (63) and (64) it can be seen that one has the capacity for doing something; can thus presents an internal view of potentiality. May, however, takes for granted that one can do something, but leaves it open as to whether or not one does something - external view of potentiality.

Sentences such as (64) declare "the existence of the runner's capacity without evoking the actualization of the event (run) itself... This explains the particular aptness with which these auxiliaries replace the subjunctive mood: the latter indicates the refusal to approach the actual on the vertical axis of the chronogenesis; the auxiliaries indicate a withdrawal from the actual into the virtual on the horizontal axis of the same" (Hirtle 1963: 127).

This brings an end to our discussion of the verbal system in English. There is a great deal more that could be said about the English verbal

system, but this brief description should be sufficient to provide a contrast with the French verbal system which will be discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

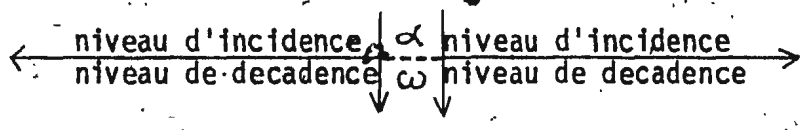
TENSE, MOOD, AND ASPECT OF THE FRENCH VERB

2.1 Introduction

Probably nobody has had more profound insight on the content system of the French verb than Gustave Guillaume. It is in this area, the area of la structure psychique, of language that he made his most profound observations and put forward his most noteworthy views. On the basis of his theories in this field of language one is able to explain phenomena of language which, before his time, were often unsatisfactorily explained.

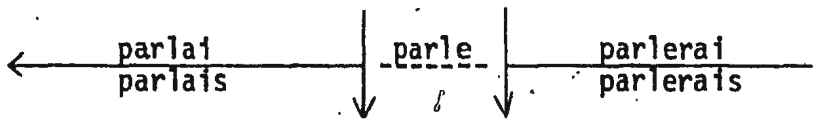
2.2 Tense

Before getting into any specific aspect of the French verbal system, we shall, first of all, see how the French view time through the medium of the verb. Through the tense system, the French see time as coming to be (incidence) and also as having come to be (decadence). In a diagram (Guillaume 1971a: 94):



2.2.1 The Present

From the above diagram we see that the present in French is represented as a threshold which is comprised of the first moment of the future and the last moment of the past (α moment and ω moment), but instead of being horizontally organized, as in English, it is vertically organized.



"Le présent français étant un présent vertical, il apporte avec lui la distinction des deux niveaux qu'il comporte: Le niveau α supérieure, et le

niveau ω inférieur. Le niveau α est le niveau d'incidence: celui du temps arrivant; le niveau ω, le niveau de décadence: celui du temps arrivé" (Guillaume 1971a: 94). From the diagram, then, it can be seen that the α moment is continually becoming an ω moment, but the reverse is impossible.

Because of the nature of the present, French has five (5) basic tenses in the indicative.

Je parle
Je parlai
Je parlais
Je parlerai
Je parlerais

The English present, being presented very differently, allows for only two (2) basic tenses in the indicative, as was discussed in the previous chapter.

We shall now commence dealing with the various tense forms in French. Morphologically there are two past and two future tense forms in French, which are divided by the vertical present. Now, the present has an α moment (in incidence) and an ω moment (in decadence). By definition, the α moment can have no <u>accompli</u> since if <u>accompli</u> exists we already have "temps arrivé" and, therefore, decadence. So, any movement of the present in French involves movement from the level of incidence to decadence. But, the present can also be used to represent the first moment of the future as well as the last moment of the past.

(1) J'arrive... (α representation)
(2) Je viens vous dire... (ω representation)

"The fact that French represents the ω moment as an element of the present whereas English represents it as an element of the past underlies the difference between decadence and incidence" (Hewson 1972: 140).

As can be gathered from the discussion up to this point, the French present is different from the English. "The French present, as well as representing both α and ω moments may also be used to express both past and future in particular contextual circumstances. The use of the present to represent the past is known as the Historic Present, and may be recognized as a stylistic trick to make the narration more vivid, since the writer thereby simulates the events as being simultaneous with the reader's consciousness - it is as if he were taking the reader back to the moment when events were actually occurring" (Hewson 1972: 141). As well, French uses the present to represent the future:

(3) Je vais à St-Jean demain matin.

(4) Je sors dans deux heures.

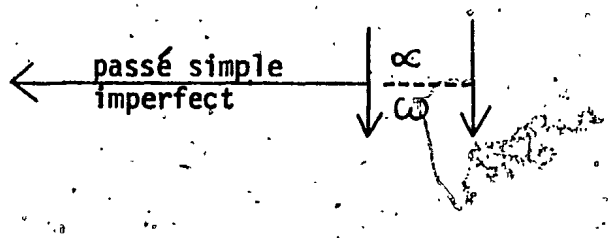
Actually, however, (3) and (4) show present intention of a future event (this was also seen in English). Otherwise, French uses the future tense forms to represent future events.

(5) J'irai à St-Jean demain matin.

(6) Je sortirai dans deux heures.

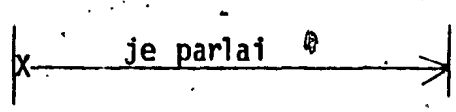
2.2.2 Tenses expressing past time

Having considered the present tense in French, we shall now revert to discussing the two past tenses of the indicative: (a) passé simple in incidence and (b) imperfect in decadence.



(a) Passé Simple

The passé simple represents the incidence of a past event. In this tense the subject is represented as placed in the initial moment of the event and no movement is possible. But, the subject is represented as looking towards the future completion of the event and can see its conclusion.



Thus, the event is wholly accomplissement; since the subject is represented as involved in an event within universe time, we should say the whole event is accomplissement réel.

An analogy often used to illustrate the view of the passé simple is that of a man in a room who is to start walking from one wall across the room to the other wall. At a particular point in time the man is in the initial position facing the opposite wall, ready to start crossing - this is the position of the subject in the passé simple.

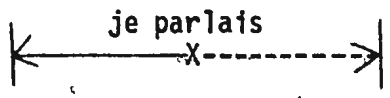
Since, in the passé simple, the subject is seen only at the beginning of the event "... the sense of the passé simple is often inceptive, i.e., it indicates the beginning or initiation of the event only, especially with verbs indicating actions that are durative;..." (Hewson 1972: 143). Hewson quotes the following (1972: 143):

(7) Qui ne sait se borner ne sut jamais écrire.
He who cannot discipline himself never learned to write.

(b) Imperfect

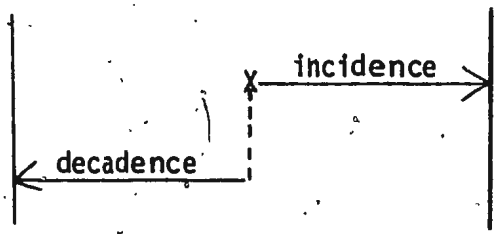
The imperfect gives the representation of the decadence of a past event. In using this tense, we have a representation of an event which has both accompli and accomplissement. In this tense we have a representation of the subject who can only see the part of the event which is already completed; not the part yet to be completed. Since the subject is represented as only

looking at the part of the event which is completed, the uncompleted part of the event should be called <u>accomplissement virtuel</u>.



Again, we may use the analogy of a man moving from one wall of a room across to the other. But, to illustrate the imperfect the analogy is of a man starting on one side of the room and backing across the room. This man can only see the part of the room he has crossed and the part to be crossed is behind him. At any point from the initial moment when he starts walking until the walking is completed the man can view the part of the event he has completed - the same is true of the representation of the subject of the imperfect.

As one can deduce from the preceding discussions of the passé simple and the imperfect "... the subject can only progress along the movement of incidence by turning each successive moment into decadence" (Hewson 1972: 142):

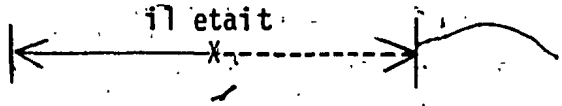


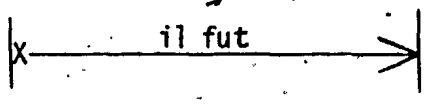
To further illustrate the difference between the passé simple and the imperfect we shall look at a pair of sentences from Mansion (1963: 65)

(8) Il était bien triste quand il reçut ma lettre.

(9) Il fut bien triste quand il reçut ma lettre.

In (8) the subject was feeling sad at the time when he received the letter; the receiving of the letter did not initiate the state of sadness. In (9) it was the contents of the letter which brought about the feeling of sadness; the subject was not sad before receiving the letter. Diagrammatically we have

(8) 

(9) 

In (8) there is <u>accompli</u> and <u>accomplissement virtuel</u>, while in (9) there is only <u>accomplissement réel</u> with the verb having an inceptive sense. So, in the passé simple the subject is bound to the very beginning of an event, whereas with the imperfect the subject can be located anywhere from the very beginning of an event to its end. Guillaume gives the following two formulae (Guillaume 1971a: 107):

(a) prétérit défini = décadence (nulle) + incidence (tout)

(b) imparfait = décadence (au voisinage immédiat de la nullité) + incidence (au voisinage immédiat de la totalité)

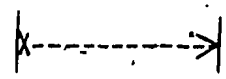
He illustrates his two formulae with the following examples:

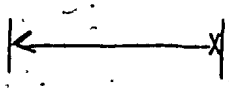
(10) Il y a trois mois un homme bien mis et de grandes manières se <u>présentait</u> chez un bijoutier.

(11) Il y a trois mois un homme bien mis et de grandes manières se <u>présenta</u> chez un bijoutier.

According to Guillaume, (10) corresponds to (b) and (11) to (a).

The imperfect, being more complex in its representations than the passé simple, merits further, more detailed, consideration. Previously it was stated that the subject in the imperfect can be represented as occurring anywhere from the event's initial to its final moment. This permits at least three different representations of the imperfect.

(a) 

(b) 

Guillaume says the following about (a) and (b): "Là où, dans l'emploi, la décadence inhérente à l'imparfait avoisine la nullité, l'incidence, corrélativement, se virtualise, et du même coup la notion d'accomplissement est sujette à céder la place à celle, plus virtuelle, d'accomplissement. Ainsi les imparfaits [as in (a) and (b)] ... peuvent être étendus, en discours, de deux manières du côté de l'incidence, qui sera soit accomplissement, soit inaccomplissement. L'incidence est accomplisement dans:

> Un instant après, le train déraillait (au sens de «déraillа», «a déraillé»),

elle est inaccomplissement dans

> Un instant de plus, le train déraillait (au sens de «aurait déraillé», «n'a pas déraillé»)". (Guillaume 1971a: 109).

As can be seen from the above diagrams, both (a) and (b) involve "brinkmanship"; (a) represents an event as just on the point of occurring while (b) represents the very moment of the completion of the event. An example of (a) is

(12) Un pas de plus et je tombais dans l'abîme.

In (12) the subject was in a position to take the next step, but did not. "An examination of our schema reveals the subject as being in position to carry out the event, occupying the initial moment of <u>accompli</u>, but with the whole of the event still to come;..." (Hewson 1972: 145).

Note that with (b) the subject is represented as being at the very moment of the completion of the event. Let us look at the following examples from Mansion (1963: 63).

(13) Je rencontrai un journaliste qui arrivait de Paris.

(14) Elle sortait à peine du couvent lorsqu'il la demanda en mariage.

In (13) and (14) the subject is still involved in the event, but the event has run to its final moment.

Finally we come to the third representation of the imperfect - this is its ordinary representation.

(c) |<----------X---------->|

This is the representation of the type of imperfect occurring in descriptions.

(15) Il pleuvait hier matin.

(16) Je parlais à Marie, quand j'ai vu Jeanne.

This is also the representation "used to indicate habitual action, the continuation of the habit being represented by the <u>accomplissement virtuel</u>" (Hewson 1972: 146).

(17) Chaque jour il travaillait de huit heures à midi.

Type (c) is also the one used for "past reporting of utterances originally expressed in the present" (Hewson 1972: 146).

(18) Il m'a dit qu'il était riche.

"Since the ordinary present has a similar element of <u>accompli</u>, it is always the imperfect that is used to report it in the past" (Hewson 1972: 146). Finally, the imperfect of type (c) can also "represent an event begun at a remoter period and still continuing. The conjunctions <u>depuis</u>, etc., which cause the use of the perfective forms in English, again underscore a direct comparison with the present:" (Hewson 1972: 146).

(19) Nous <u>étions</u> ici depuis un an. (imperfect)
We <u>had been</u> here for a year. (past perfect)

<u>2.2.3 Tenses expressing future time</u>

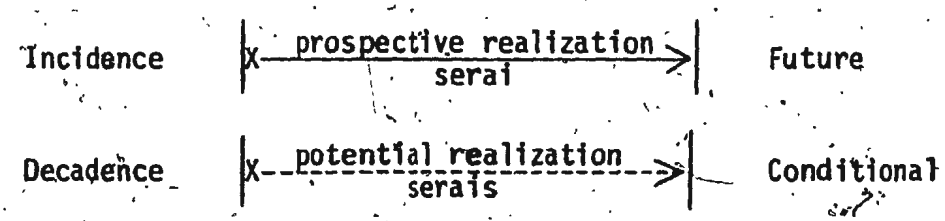
<u>Future and Conditional</u>

In French the <u>present</u> is a threshold separating past and future. In the

past there are two tense forms - passé simple and imperfect. In the future there are also two basic tenses - future in incidence and conditional in decadence.

In the representations of past time it was seen that the passé simple was less complex than the imperfect. Also, the future tense appears less complex than the conditional. In the future it is impossible to have any accompli "since accompli is the representation of the materiality of the event, an impossible entity for an event that has not yet occurred" (Hewson 1972: 150).

The conditional, being very similar, morphologically, to the imperfect, is similar, in a representation of "brinkmanship", to the imperfect. In the conditional "... the subject ... is 'trapped' in much the same way as the subject of the passé simple - unable to move out of the initial position" (Hewson 1972: 150). With an imperfect of type (a) the subject is confronted only with accomplissement virtuel; this is also the position of the subject in the conditional. "The subject of the conditional ... is represented as confronted only by accomplissement virtuel, the potential realization of the event, the prospective realization of the event being reserved for the future ...." (Hewson 1972: 150-151). Diagrammatically we have



From the diagrams above, we see that in the conditional the individual is represented as being at the very beginning of an event and forbidden to move. Also, being in decadence, the subject is represented as not being able to see the end of the event. "Consequently the total representation is one of accomplissement virtuel, of what might be, what could happen, if circumstances

were to change sufficiently to allow the individual to move" (Hewson 1972: 152).

"The most common sense of the conditional... is that of the unrealized event, the event which could be realized because the subject is in the appropriate position to carry it out" (Hewson 1972: 152). We shall now consider the following example from Mansion (1963: 70).

(20) On a proposé de percer un tunnel qui relierait directement les deux vallées.

In (20) the tunnel would be in a position to connect the two valleys, but the event cannot be realized since the tunnel is not yet a reality.

As was seen previously, at the level of incidence time is viewed as coming-to-be, while the level of decadence represents time as already come-to-be. In the present we saw that the α moment in incidence, the first moment of the future becomes the ω moment in decadence, the last moment of the past. Thus, we can see that decadence is the "past" of incidence.

Since the future tense is represented in the level of incidence it views an event as coming to be;

(21) Vous <u>ferez</u> comme vous <u>voudrez</u>.

the conditional, in decadence, views a future event as "past", since decadence is the "past" of incidence.

(22) Il refusa de me conseiller. Je <u>ferais</u> comme je <u>voudrais</u>.

So, in (22) he really said "Vous ferez comme vous voudrez". When this is reported as a past event, the conditional is used, that is used to represent the future in a matrix of the past, that is, in a situation or context of the past.

Up to this point, in this chapter, we have considered the system of tense in French. We have seen that French has two tenses at the level of

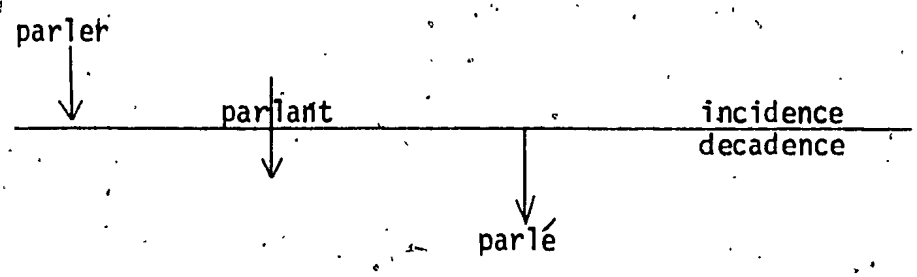
incidence - passé simple and future; it has two tenses at the level of decadence - imperfect and conditional; it has a vertical present separating past time and future time.

2.3 Mood

In the English verbal system we saw that there are three moods - quasi-nominal, subjunctive, and indicative. The French verb also distinguishes these three moods morphologically and syntactically. So, in dealing with the aspect of mood we shall follow the chronogenesis of the verb as outlined by Guillaume (1971a: 80-85).

2.3.1 Quasi-nominal Mood

The quasi-nominal is represented as being the least developed of the moods. In this mood there are three forms which are not inflected for person: infinitive (parler), present participle (parlant), past participle (parlé). Diagrammatically the mood may be represented as follows:



In French we see that the infinitive (parler) is totally in incidence and therefore an abstraction. "Since events, by their nature, normally require to be represented as abstractions, it is natural that the infinitive, the representation of incidence, should be the most common representation of the event as a noun" (Hewson 1972: 99). Also, the notional content of an infinitive is predicated of itself "and may therefore behave much like a noun (which is likewise a notion predicated of itself). Parler therefore represents the content of a content - the simple notion of speaking" (Hewson 1972: 157).

(23) Je leur ai dit de parler.

The present participle is partly in incidence and partly in decadence. Containing decadence, it has an element of materiality and is not wholly abstract. "The present participle, since it ... contains an element of decadence within its representation, is more commonly used as an adjective than as a noun. If used as a noun, it is ... more likely to hypostatically represent the person carrying out the event than the simple process of the event itself: un passant, un étudiant" (Hewson 1972: 100-101).

(24) Un homme marchant...

Finally, there is the past participle (parlé) which is wholly in decadence, and therefore represents a completed event - unlike the present participle which represents an event as in progress. The past participle is therefore more readily used as an adjective although it "may in fact hypostatically be used to represent the person or thing bound by the result of the event: un fiancé, les morts" (Hewson 1972: 100). Following are examples of the past participle used as an adjective (Mansion 1963: 87):

(25) On lut le testament devant la famille assemblée.

(26) La porte est fermée.

2.3.2 Subjunctive Mood

The next stage in the chronogenesis of the French verb is the subjunctive mood. At this stage the event is given a subject and thus event time. But, the chronogenesis is still incomplete since there is still no division made between experiential and non-experiential time.

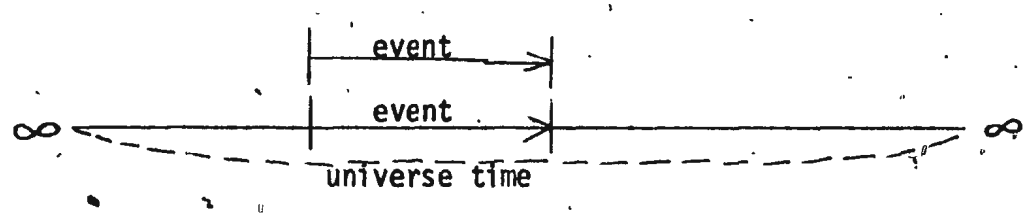
que je parle →

∞ incidence / decadence ∞

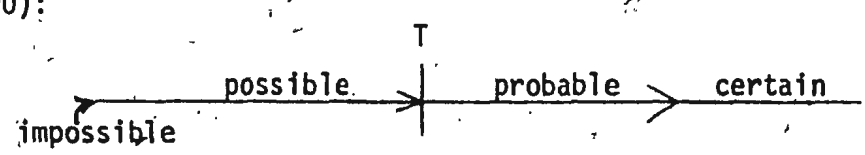
← que je parlasse

Notice that the event can take place at any moment in time. The event, at this stage, is still not represented as a fully experiential reality since it is not allocated to any experiential time-sphere. "Subjunctive events in French are therefore represented as belonging to the totality of time, which is an abstraction, and represent time as thought of by the speaker. Consequently ... the subjunctive represents the idea of the event rather than the occurrence of the event" (Hewson 1972: 103). The subjunctive, then, in French, is used to represent potential events, with possibility, not probability of occurrence.

The separation of the subjunctive and indicative is seen in the chronogenesis of the French verb. In the subjunctive the event is not allocated to any time-sphere, while in the indicative the event is allocated to a time-sphere in universe time.



The use of the mechanism of the subjunctive is determined by the fact that the event is felt by the speaker to be in the realm of the possible. Speakers of French use the mechanism of mood to distinguish the notional realm of the possible from that of the probable, thus forging a threshold between the two, as can be shown in the following diagram (Adapted from Guillaume 1971a: 200):



Notionally, when the threshold (T), separating possibility and probability, is crossed we enter the realm of probability, and thus the indicative is used in French. Notionally it is axiomatic that an event must be possible before it becomes probable or certain. As long as the event is felt by the speaker to belong to the realm of the possible (not the probable) the speaker of French will use the subjunctive.

Before going further into our discussion of the subjunctive, we shall discuss Guillaume's terms idée regardante and idée regardée. In complex sentences there is a main clause and a subordinate clause.

(27) Il est certain qu'il viendra.

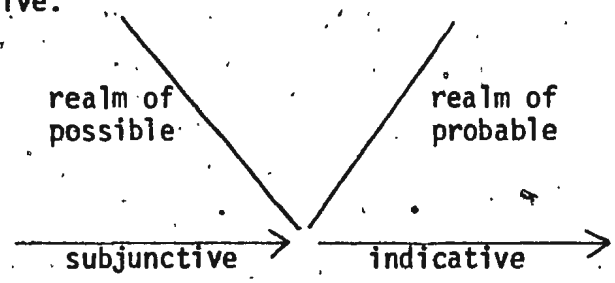
In the main clause we have the idée regardante (Il est certain), while in the subordinate clause we have the idée regardée (qu'il viendra). Guillaume says "On voudra bien remarquer que partout et toujours le mode a pour déterminant l'idée regardante, et que, partout et toujours aussi, c'est l'idée regardée qui en prend la marque" (Guillaume 1971a: 191). It seems then that the subjunctive is found mainly in subordinate clauses where the idea of the main clause expresses the notion of possibility. "Mais si c'est là le cas ordinaire, ce n'est pas le cas obligé" (Guillaume 1971a: 192).

(28) Puissiez - vous réussir.

The subjunctive in (28) "vient de ce que l'idée regardante non rendue par des mots, non répresentée, est très sensiblement une idée de souhait, et que le souhait, le désir sont des idées regardantes... ressortissant à la conception générale du possible non depassé en probable" (Guillaune 1971a: 206).

The idée regardante and idée regardée are important concepts to remember in our discussion of the subjunctive. The following diagram, which is really an expansion of the one on page 37, will be very useful in our consideration of the idée regardante and idée regardée, and how they relate to the subjunc-

tive and indicative.



If the force of the idée regardante does not transfer the idée regardée from the realm of the possible to the realm of the probable, we use the subjunctive, which is used in French to represent the idea in the realm of the possible:

(29) Il est impossible qu'il vienne.

(30) Il est possible qu'il vienne.

But, once the threshold is felt to have been crossed we are in the realm of the probable and so we use the indicative (see diagram above).

(31) Il est probable qu'il viendra.

(32) Il est certain qu'il viendra.

In (29) probability is really denied, a case which requires the use of the subjunctive.

Now, we shall consider in more detail the ideas that bring about the use of the subjunctive. Guillaume has a very concise yet useful diagram which illustrates various ideas bringing about the use of the subjunctive (1971a: 206).

Phase I interdisant la complétude S_1	désir - attente - ordre (commandement) - volition - souhait préférence - et généralement, idée critique signifiant << trouver bien >>, << trouver mal >> - possibilité hypothèse en situation S_1 (subjunctif)	mode subjonctif S_1
	S S	
Phase II permettant la complétude S_2	hypothèse en situation S_2 (indicatif) probabilité espoir - prévision - croyance affirmation	S_2 mode indicatif

Besides the above diagram, Guillaume lists the various ideas requiring the subjunctive as well as those requiring the use of the indicative (1971a: 216-217).

Phase I (devant seuil S)	possible	(probabilité négative, prévision négative, croyance négative).
	désir, volition	(commandement)
	expectative	(attente: irrésolution entre la prévision négative et la prévision positive).
	idées critiques	(juger bien ou mal)
	exception	(discussion de possibilité: la seule personne qui ait vu clair en ceci...
	supposition pure, admission pure	(faisant part égale à la prévision négative et à la prévision positive: je suppose qu'il vienne)

	hypothèse	(en position primaire S_1, dans certaines conditions d'emploi restreintes; morphologiquement: vous eussiez réussi).
	récurrence de que et si	(si vous le faites et que vous réussissez).
	récurrence sémantique	(sachez que je vous comprends).
	antécédence	(insuffisance positive: je cherche un homme qui sache faire ce travail).
	conjonction virtualisante	(afin qu'il le sache).
Phase II (après seuil S)	supposition	(à base de prévision positive, non gratuite: je suppose qu'il viendra).
	hypothèse	(en position secondaire S_2, mode conditionnel: vous auriez réussi).
	probabilité	
	prévision positive	(prévision négative forte).
	espoir	
	croyance positive	(croyance négative forte).
	certitude	
	affirmation de realité, de chose établie, posée	(déclaration d'attitude: j'ai dit que je ne le ferais pas).
	antécédence positive	(je connais un homme qui saura faire ce travail).
	conjonction actualisante	(parce qu'il avait fini, il s'en alla).

As can be seen from the preceding diagrams, all verbs "stating, hoping, declaring, believing, and all adjectival expressions indicating truth, certainty, etc.," (Hewson 1972: 161) are idées regardantes that determine a

subsequent indicative; idées regardantes that express a negative determine a subsequent subjunctive, since negation indicates negative chances of occurring.

(33) Je ne pense pas qu'il vienne. (subjunctive)

(34) Je pense qu'il viendra. (indicative)

(35) Il n'est pas vrai qu'il l'ait dit. (subjunctive)

(36) Il est vrai qu'il l'a dit. (indicative)

So, (33) and (35) which give the event negative chances of occurring require the subjunctive in the subordinate clause.

However, one does not need to express a negative for an event to have negative chances of occurring. Notionally, if we think an event has negative chances of occurring we use the subjunctive to represent the event.

(37) On cherche une secrétaire qui <u>sait</u> le chinois.

(38) On cherche une secrétaire qui <u>sache</u> le chinois.

In (37) one expects to find the secretary while the use of the subjunctive in (38) indicates that one does not expect to find the secretary.

When the antecedent to the verb in the subordinate clause is a non-person or someone (something) indefinite French also requires use of the subjunctive.

(39) Il n'y a pas un élève qui connaisse M. LeBrun.

In (39) <u>un élève</u> does not exist - he is a non-person. In examples such as the following from Hewson, the subject is indefinite and so the subjunctive is required (Hewson 1972: 162).

(40) Qui que vous soyez... (Whoever you are...)

(41) Quoi que tu dises... (Whatever you say...)

(42) Si fort que tu sois... (However strong you are...)

Since the antecedent in (40) - (42) is unknown, being indefinite, the use of the subjunctive is required.

According to Guillaume's list above, certain conjunctions (conjonctions virtualisantes) such as pour que, sans que, de sorte que, jusqu'à ce que, etc., also take the subjunctive in the subordinate clause. Jusqu'à ce que, however, only takes the subjunctive when "used with future reference" (Hewson 1972: 163) since in such a case the ce refers to an unknown moment. In past time reference the ce refers to a known moment of memorial time, and thus the indicative follows.

(43) J'attendrai jusqu'à ce qu'il vienne. (future reference)

(44) J'ai attendu jusqu'à ce qu'il est venu. (past reference)

(45) Il est sorti sans que vous le sachiez.

(46) Je parle lentement pour que vous me compreniez.

In (45) the conjunction sans que expresses negation and is followed by the subjunctive. "Il nous met en présence du non-existant encore, d'une situation où l'événement n'est pas encore arrivé" (Guillaume 1971a: 241). Situations which are anticipatif require the subjunctive, which is what we have in (45).

Another example of a conjonction virtualisante is pour que. The conjunction "pour que est anticipatif,...et en conséquence il gouverne le subjonctif" (Guillaume 1971a: 241). This is the type of situation that exists in (46); in (46) the understanding is contingent on the addressee's willingness to speak slower and such an event requires the subjunctive as its representation.

The next point of discussion, and one which Guillaume discusses extensively is that of value judgments (idées critiques). With an idée critique we judge whether something is good or bad. "A very real difference between French and English occurs in clauses subjected to a personal value judgment. French regularly uses the subjunctive here,..." (Hewson 1972: 164).

(47) Je regrette qu'il soit venu.

In (47) "the idée regardée is placed in the subjunctive because of the existence of an idée regardante critique. By using the subjunctive here...speakers of French bring the force of the critical evaluation to bear not upon the occurrence of the event (= indicative) but upon its very nature, upon the idea of the event" (Hewson 1972: 165).

(48) Je comprends qu'il a acheté un auto.

(49) Je comprends qu'il ait acheté un auto.

In (48) the subject understands the occurrence of the event; in (49) the subject understands what lies behind the event; understands the nature of the event.

Sometimes it is possible to get value judgments with the use of the superlative.

(50) C'est le meilleur ami que nous ayons.

In (50) we are not stating a fact, but instead we are saying that in our opinion he is the best of all possible friends.

With reference to idées critiques, "The use of the subjunctive in value judgments makes possible a much more generalized type of criticism: in explicitly criticizing the nature of the event rather than the occurrence one is implicitly criticizing all other possible occurrences of such an event by criticizing the underlying notion or principle of the event" (Hewson 1972: 166).

In French, if one wishes to express desire or volition one uses the subjunctive.

(51) Je souhaite qu'il vienne.

(52) Je veux que vous le fassiez.

(53) J'ordonne qu'il parte.

Guillaume says that the general idea of volition governs the subjunctive

(1971a: 217-218), thus explaining the use of the subjunctive in (51) - (53).

2.3.3 Indicative Mood

Up to this point in our discussion of moods we have considered the subjunctive and the reasons for its use as given by Guillaume. Now, we shall consider the third stage in the chronogenesis of the French verb, the stage where an event is allocated to a time-sphere within universe time. At this stage, notionally the threshold between possible and probable is felt, by the speaker, to have been crossed.

In the French indicative there are five (5) morphological basic tense forms (see diagram page 25). Each of these five morphological forms is used to represent the occurrence of an event, as was the case in (48).

When an event is seen as having positive chances of occurring, the indicative is required as its representation. Thus verbs expressing supposition, probabilité, espoir, etc., are represented notionally as having crossed the threshold and thus as having positive chances of coming-to-be. Thus, in

(54) Je suppose qu'il viendra.

(55) J'espère qu'il viendra.

(56) Il est probable qu'il viendra.

(57) Il est certain qu'il viendra.

(58) Je crois qu'il viendra.

one expects him to come.

We saw previously, in (39), that when the antecedent of the verb in the subordinate clause was a non-person, the subjunctive was required as the verbal representation. But, when the antecedent is a real person we use the indicative.

(59) Je connais un homme qui saura faire ce travail.

When we simply state facts about the occurrence of the event and do not pass any judgment, the indicative is required, as in (48).

According to Guillaume, the verb in a subordinate clause after a conjonction virtualisante requires the subjunctive, while following a conjonction actualisante the use of the indicative is required.

(60) Parce qu'il avait fini, il s'en alla.

In (60) we see that "Parce que est non anticipatif, le mot parce renvoyant à la cause...et en conséquence la locution parce que régit l'indicatif" (Guillaume 1971a: 241).

Thus, we see that if, in the mind of the speaker, the threshold between possible and probable is crossed, the speaker will use the indicative in discourse; if it is not crossed he will use the subjunctive. One must keep in mind at all times that the important point in determining which mood (subjunctive or indicative) is to be used, is whether the speaker feels the threshold is crossed or not.

2.4 Aspect

As was seen from the previous discussions, French has five basic tenses (passé simple, imperfect, present, future, conditional) to represent divisions of time in the indicative. Besides these five, French also has two tense forms in the subjunctive (present and imperfect) as well as three forms (often called tense forms) in the quasi-nominal mood (infinitive, present participle, past participle). Besides these ten simple forms, the French verbal system makes use of a system of aspect (whereby an auxiliary and a verbal are combined) to express further temporal divisions.

In French, for every simple form of the verb there is at least one corresponding compound form.

	Simple	Transcendent	Bi-Transcendent
Infinitive	parler	avoir parlé	avoir eu parlé
Present Participle	parlant	ayant parlé	ayant eu parlé
Past Participle	parlé	(eu parlé)	_____
Subjunctive I	parle	aie parlé	aie eu parlé
Subjunctive II	parlasse	eusse parlé	_____
Present	parle	ai parlé	ai eu parlé
Imperfect	parlais	avais parlé	avais eu parlé
Passé Simple	parlai	eus parlé	_____
Future	parlerai	aurai parlé	aurai eu parlé
Conditional	parlerais	aurais parlé	aurais eu parlé

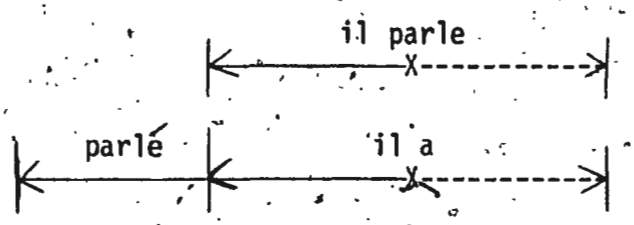
From the preceding diagram we see that there are three aspects in French - simple (immanent), transcendent, and bi-transcendent. Each of these three aspects presents a different view of an event.

(a) Immanent Aspect

All the verbal forms of the immanent aspect are expressed by a single word. "In all the simple forms of the verb only the time interior to the event represented is in question... In such a form as il parlait, where the verb is predicated of a subject, the subject is represented as engaged in the activity of a past event; in il parle he is represented as engaged in a present event; and in il parlera he is represented as engaged in a future event" (Hewson 1972: 113). So, in the simple forms of the subjunctive and indicative moods, "the subject is represented as being interior to the event,..." (Hewson 1972: 113).

(b) Transcendent Aspect

The forms of the transcendent aspect consist of an auxiliary plus a past participle of the main verb. "With the compound forms the subject is represented as occupying a new space posterior to the completion of the original event. This new space is defined by the event time of the auxiliary, while the event time of the original event is represented by the past participle" (Hewson 1972: 114).

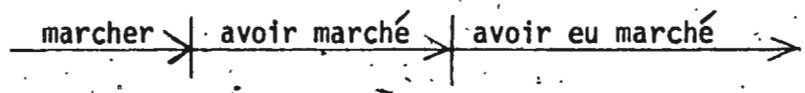


In il a parlé, the subject is removed from the event represented by parle. Thus, we get an exterior view of the event represented by parlé.

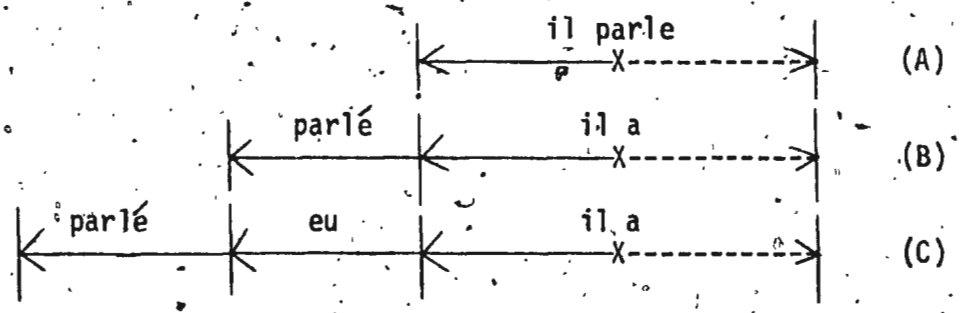
(c) Bi-Transcendent Aspect

As was seen in the previous paragraph, the transcendent aspect (compound forms) presents the subject as one stage removed from the action of the past participle; in the bi-transcendent aspect the subject is removed a further stage: "avoir eu marché est la subséquence de avoir marché" (Guillaume 1971a: 177). The following two diagrams will help clarify the three aspects.

(Guillaume 1971a: 185)



(Hewson 1972: 115)



In the bi-transcendent aspect, "What was the auxiliary in the compound forms is itself transformed into a past participle, and a new auxiliary created that opens up a further space of event time that is posterior both to the event time of the original auxiliary and to the event time of the original past participle" (Hewson 1972: 115). So, in the diagram from Hewson above, (B) represents an event which occurs before (A) and (C) an event which occurs before (B).

2.4.1 Tense Agreement

"In a very high percentage of dependent clauses of time in French the verb of the subordinate clause is found to be in the same tense as the main clause" (Hewson 1972: 116).

(61) Je sors quand il fait beau.

(62) Je sortirai quand il fera beau.

The same agreement of tenses is also found in the compound forms.

(63) Je suis sorti quand il a fait beau.

(64) Je serais sorti quand il aurait fait beau.

In examples (61) - (64) the different verbs represent actions that are roughly contemporaneous.

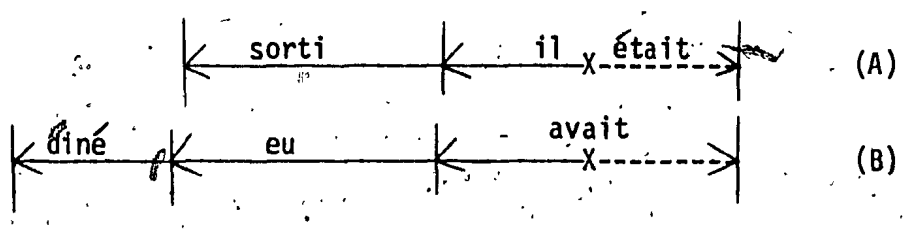
However, in certain cases it is necessary to show one action as occurring before the other, as in the following (Mansion 1963: 214).

(65) Il sort quand il a dîné.

(66) Il sortait quand il avait dîné.

(67) Il était sorti quand il avait eu dîné.

Following is a diagram that would represent (67):



In this diagram (A) is represented as occurring before (B).

2.4.2 Verbs requiring être as auxiliary

As with English, être is the auxiliary used to give a representation of an interior view of the consequence of an event, while avoir is the auxiliary used to give an exterior view. With être the subject is located within the limits of the event, while the subject is represented as outside the event with avoir as the auxiliary.

(68) Il a battu. (Subject is represented as outside the limits of the event, and therefore free.)

(69) Il est battu. (Subject represented as located within the limits of the event, and therefore bound.)

When considering cases in which avoir and être are auxiliaries, the concepts agent (doer of the action) and patient (receiver of the action) are very important. The agent is free to do the action, but the patient is bound by it. Etre is intransitive and is therefore most naturally predicated of the notional patient. Such is the case in

(70) Elle s'est blessé. (se = elle)

(71) Elle est blessé.

In (70) and (71), where être is the auxiliary, the subject is notionally the patient, being represented as bound by the event.

Avoir, on the other hand, is transitive, and any subject of which it is predicated must necessarily be seen as a notional agent.

(72) Il a battu Paul.

In (72) the subject is the agent causing the action on the patient (Paul). Since, if the subject is the notional agent, avoir is the required auxiliary, which is the case in (72).

Besides the passive voice, as in (71), and the middle voice as in (70),

French has a list of sixteen (16) common verbs which require être as the auxiliary in creating compound forms.

aller	venir
sortir	entrer
partir	arriver
mourir	naître
retourner	revenir
monter	descendre
rentrer	
devenir	
tomber	
rester	

These verbs are verbs of resultant state and they behave like verbs of the middle voice. "All these verbs represent actions which, when completed, result in a state of affairs where the subject is no longer free" (Hewson 1972: 127). Thus, when the actions represented by these verbs are completed, the subject must remain involved in the results of the events. Such is the case of the verbs of middle voice as can be seen in (70). Once the subject of (70) has wounded herself she must remain involved in the results of her action.

We shall look at examples from the sixteen verbs above to examine the situation of the subject after the action of the verb has taken place.

(73) Elle est morte hier matin.

(74) Elles sont nées le sept janvier.

(75) Je suis allé à Montréal.

In (73) - (75) when the action is completed, the subject is not in a position to continue the same action and is bound by the consequences of the event. For example, in (73) when the subject has died she is no longer free to

continue dying, being bound by the consequence of dying.

It is important to point out that these verbs require être as the auxiliary only if they do not or cannot have an object. When such a verb takes an object we have the active voice and thus an exterior view of the consequences of the action of the event.

(76) Je suis monté.

(77) J'ai monté mes bagages.

In (76) the subject is still involved in the consequences of the event, while in (77) the subject is free of the consequences of the event, which are subsumed by mes bagages. The reason for (77) having avoir as the auxiliary is because it is clear that the subject is an agent since mes bagages must necessarily be the patient; from page 51 we see that if the subject is an agent then the verbal auxiliary must be avoir. Guillaume says that "...le mécanisme de transitivité ne sort pas, en français, de la voix active" (Guillaume 1971b: 194). However, if the subject cannot free himself from the consequences of the event, he really is a patient as in (76) and thus the passive type construction is required in the transcendent aspect.

CHAPTER THREE

INTERFERENCE OF THE ENGLISH VERBAL SYSTEM ON LEARNING FRENCH TENSE SYSTEM

3.1 Introduction

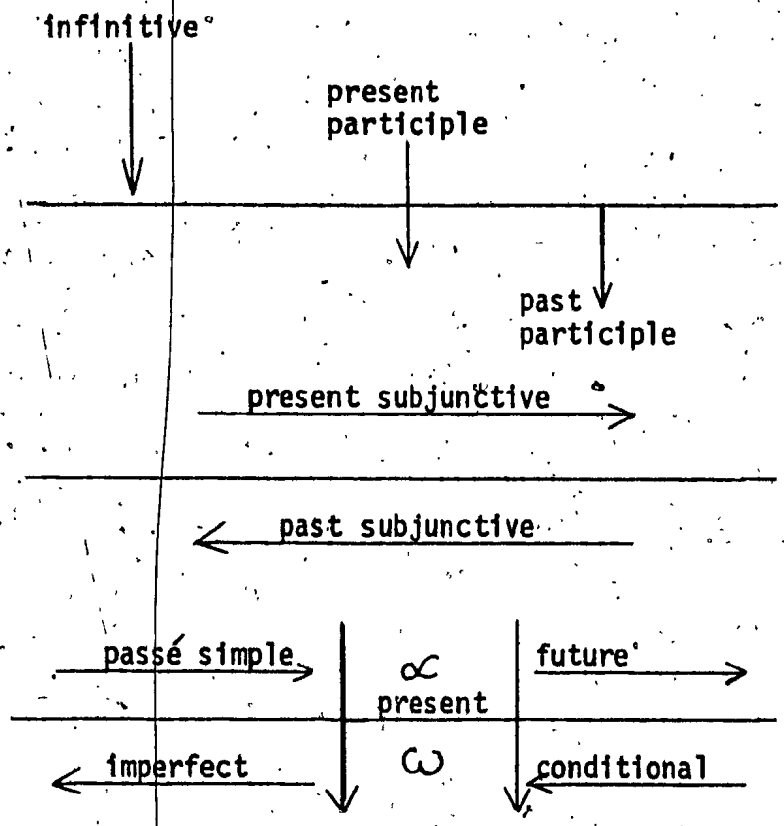
Up to this point we have considered the structures of both the English and French verbal systems within the areas of tense, mood, and aspect. At this point we shall discuss the different factors in the English verbal system which make it difficult to learn and understand the system of tense in French. Having previously looked at the two verbal systems, we see that there are basic differences between them and these differences are the source of interference in language-learning.

We shall now consider what we mean by the term interference. Interference occurs when factors belonging to the native-speaker's language (but which do not belong to the target language) are carried over and applied incorrectly when using the target language. Since the English and French verbal systems are structurally very different in many ways, there certainly will be considerable interference from English in learning the French verbal system.

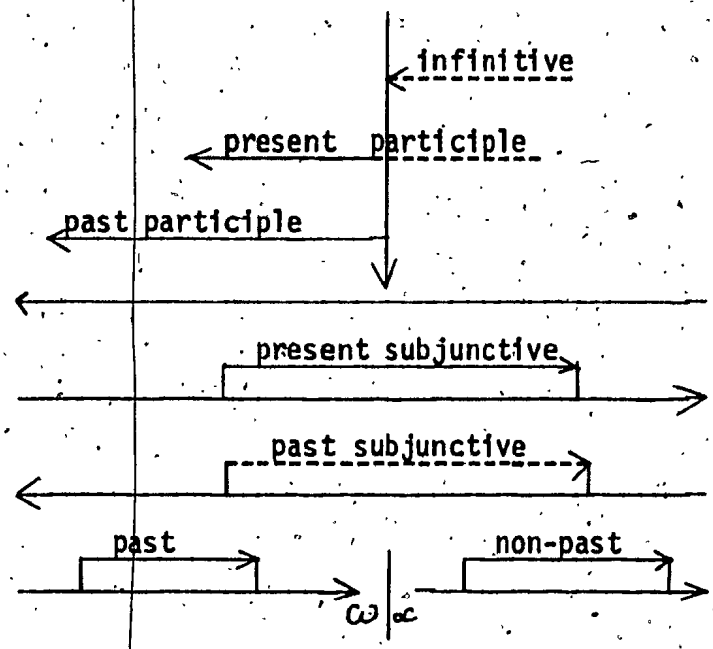
Finally, a word is necessary about the students whose papers were studied. The students selected for this study have all had at least three years of studying French in school before attending university and have had at least one semester (some have had three semesters) studying French at the university level. Yet these students continue to use, incorrectly, structures of the English verbal system in their French essays (the essays having been written under examination conditions).

As was stated previously, French has ten (10) morphologically distinct tense forms - five (5) in the indicative, two (2) in the subjunctive, and

three (3) in the quasi-nominal mood.



English, on the other hand, has only seven (7) distinct morphological tense forms.



From the preceding representations of the respective chronogeneses, we can see certain places where tense interference is likely to occur.

3.2 Differences between the French and English Quasi-nominal

First of all, we shall consider the quasi-nominal mood in each language. There is a morphological difference between the infinitives in French and English: in French the infinitive is marked, whereas in English it is unmarked. But, there seems to be a more fundamental difference between English and French which causes the interference at the level of the quasi-nominal mood. Although at this level in each language we have the infinitive, present participle, and past participle, "usage of the infinitives and participles sometimes differ widely between the two languages:" (Hewson 1972: 101). The following examples from Hewson illustrate the differences (Hewson 1972: 101).

(1) J'ai entendu chanter les enfants.

(2) I heard the children sing.

(3) I heard the children singing.

(4) J'ai entendu chanter la chanson.

(5) I heard the song sung.

(6) Chanter, c'est un plaisir.

(7) Singing is a pleasure.

(8) To sing is a pleasure.

(9) C'est un plaisir de chanter.

(10) It is a pleasure to sing.

Examples (1) - (10) illustrate clearly that the infinitives and participles in the two languages can certainly have very different usages.

In English "the infinitive and participles represent the materiality of

the event. Since they represent the event as a content, their normal predication is in the mode of an adjectival relationship:" (Hewson 1972: 73). One should point out, however, that an infinitive cannot be placed immediately before a noun.

(11) The bottle was seen to break.

(12) *We saw the break bottle.

"Two syntactic facts are illustrated here: (1)...a pure infinitive (i.e. without to) may only be immediately predicated of a direct object and (2) only in the predicate and not in the epithet relation" (Hewson 1972: 74).

In the quasi-nominal mood in French, the following situation exists: the infinitive is represented as being totally in incidence and represents an event as an abstraction. "Since events, by their nature, normally require to be represented as abstractions, it is natural that the infinitive, the representation of incidence, should be the most common representation of the event as a noun" (Hewson 1972: 99). The present participle represents an event as partially complete and partially to be completed, while the past participle represents an event as completed (totally in decadence). Since each participle contains "an element of decadence within its representation, it is more commonly used as an adjective than as a noun" (Hewson 1972: 100-101). If the present participle is used as a noun it hypostatically represents the person carrying out the event, not the process of the event itself: un passant. If the past participle is used as a noun it very often is used hypostatically to "represent the person or thing bound by the result of the event: un fiancé, les morts. In justifying the content of the past participle as a representation of decadence, however, it is of great interest to note that one such past participle, when used as a noun, represents the simple materiality of the event: le passé"(Hewson 1972: 100).

The following examples illustrate a fundamental difference, between English and French, which exists at the level of the quasi-nominal mood.

(13) Un passant m'a demandé l'heure.

(14) I see the writing on the wall.

(15) Writing is a difficult task.

In (13) - (15) one can see that the following relationship exists: the nominalized present participle in French can only represent the agent, while in English the nominalized present participle represents either the patient (the written) or the carrying out of the event. This fundamental difference probably stems from the fact that the underlying view of time in the quasi-nominal mood in English is that of decadence - see the diagram in section 3.1. Also, the three elements of the quasi-nominal mood appear to be represented as movements in English but as positions in French. Such fundamental differences as those just mentioned probably account for differences which exist at the level of the quasi-nominal mood.

3.2.1 Interference in the Quasi-nominal

Having seen that some very important differences exist between the quasi-nominal mood in English and French, we shall now consider some mistakes made by students, in discourse, and see how the differences in the content system account for them.

(16) *Je n'aimais pas écrivant les exams au Thompson Center parce qu'il était trop grand.

(17) *J'étais très surprise voir cette annonce parce que je suis intéressée en faisant un voyage...

(18) *Nous passerions un jour entier regardant les robes...

(Note that there are other errors besides errors in the verbs in some of the sentences and these have not been corrected.) In (16) - (18) English

students used the present participle (which represents the materiality of an event in English) where French requires use of an infinitive (which represents the event as a noun). Before leaving the discussion of errors represented in (16) - (18) we shall point out that this type of error is probably the most common of all and occurs just as frequently after three semesters as at the very beginning of university studies.

Another type of error which English students sometimes make (at the level of the quasi-nominal mood) occurs with the representation of the future. It is quite permissible to use sentences such as the following in English:

(19) Next weekend we <u>will go fishing</u>.

(20) We <u>will go fishing</u> in the lake.

In (19) and (20) English uses the present participle which represents the materiality of an event; French, on the other hand, requires use of the infinitive in sentences such as those above since it is the infinitive that is used in French to represent the dependent event. Since French requires the infinitive where English sometimes requires the present participle we get sentences such as the following from English students:

(21) *Pendant le weekend ils <u>vont dansant</u>...

(22) *Nous <u>irons nageant</u> dans un lac...

The type of error illustrated by (21) and (22) is not very frequent but nevertheless does occur among first year university students.

It should be pointed out that there are instances where the use of <u>aller</u> + <u>present participle</u> is quite acceptable in French. The type of construction just mentioned is utilized in French "pour marquer l'aspect duratif, la continuité, la progression de l'action" (Grevisse 1964: 584).

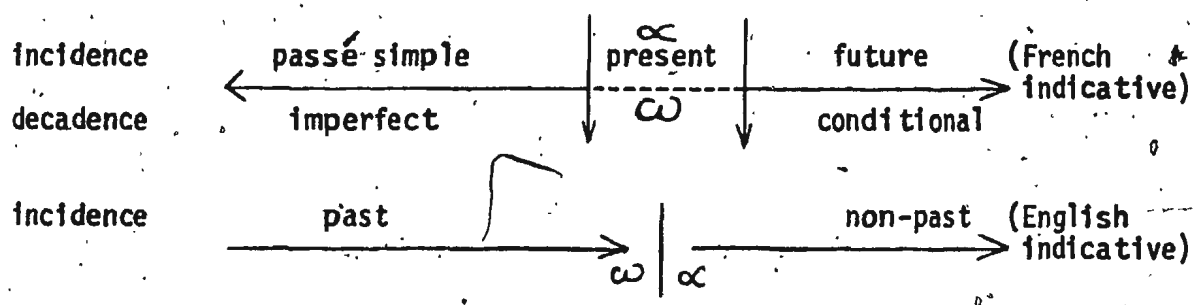
(23) Le mal <u>va croissant</u>.

(24) L'aversion <u>allait s'augmentant</u> chez notre jeune abbesse.

Note, however, that the use of the construction in (23) and (24) is quite different from the incorrect use in (21) and (22).

3.3 Differences in the English and French Indicative

At the level of the indicative where, as we have already seen, French has five basic tense forms while English has only two, we see many instances of the English verbal system interfering with one's understanding and use of the system of tense in French.



From the two diagrams of the representations of the indicative in both French and English it may be observed that there is room for interference from English when one is attempting to grasp the French verbal system. In order for English to express the same time as is expressed by the French tense system English must make use of its system of aspect whereby an auxiliary and a verbal combined make up the whole verb.

(25) Je parle depuis cinq minutes. (use of tense)

(26) I have been speaking for five minutes. (use of aspect)

(27) Demain j'irai à Montréal. (use of tense)

(28) Tomorrow I will go to Montreal. (use of aspect)

Since there are only two tenses in the English indicative, English must use its aspect system to express temporal distinctions which are expressed in French by the tense system.

As can readily be seen from the above diagrams, one very

essential difference between the English and French tense representations is that the tense system of the indicative in English provides a representation only at the level of incidence, while the French tense system is represented as viewing events both from the point of view of incidence and of decadence. Since the English tense system does not provide a view of an event from the level of decadence, the system of aspect must be employed for this purpose; thus it is quite probable that interference will occur under such conditions.

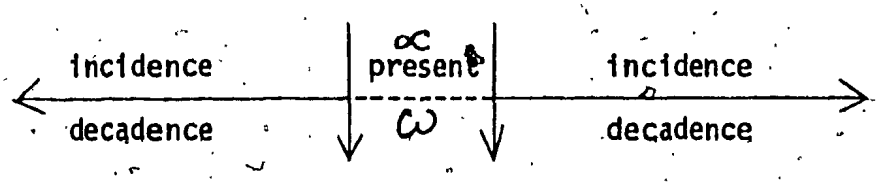
3.4 Differences in the Representation of the Present

As was the case when discussing the tense system of each language, the present will be discussed first. When discussing the English verbal system it was observed that English does not have a present tense morphology; rather there is a threshold separating past and non-past. To represent the real experiential present English normally has to utilize its aspectual system.

(29) I am washing the dishes.

In (29) the verb represents an action that is taking place in the real experiential present - here and now.

In French, however, the present tense does have a distinct morphology, and, as will be seen from the following diagram, the representation is a vertical one.



In the above diagram the α and ω moments are represented as composing the present in the French verbal system, with the α moment in incidence continually becoming the ω moment in the level of decadence; this is a fundamental element of the indicative in French.

In the verbal system of English, however, the ω moment is represented as being the last moment of the past and the α moment the first moment of the non-past.

$$\xrightarrow{\text{past}} \omega \,|\, \alpha \xrightarrow{\text{non-past}}$$

Since the English verbal system has a tense system which is solely horizontal, the representations of the α and ω moments cannot be otherwise.

3.4.1 Interference on Learning the French Present

Having mentioned the representation of present time in both languages, we shall now consider the factors causing interference when an Anglophone attempts to learn the French tense system.

(30) *Vous aimeriez aussi une promenade dans la neige qui <u>est tombant</u>.

(31) *Le ciel est bleu avec un peu de nuage..., les oiseaux <u>sont chantant</u>.

(32) *...le soleil <u>est brille</u> tout le jour.

The type of error indicated in (30) - (32) stems from interference from the English progressive. Since the progressive is often a combination of two words in English (be + ing) students carry the same structure over into French, where it is incorrectly applied. This type of error is especially prevalent among students doing only their first or second courses at university, while at the end of the third semester students make such errors much less frequently.

In order to represent the real experiential present, English frequently must use the progressive which is "used to represent the interior of the event,..." (Hewson 1972: 85). In (30) - (32) errors occur in the verb where an English structure (progressive) is incorrectly applied to French. The students do not seem to realize that only the simple form can represent the

interior view of an event in French, while in English it can be done with the progressive.

Another mistake which did occur was the use of the present participle for the verb. Again the roots of the problem stem from English structures. Having learned that the present tense in French is represented by a single word, students used the participle, the part of the verbal phrase carrying the content, for the verb.

(33) *J'écrivant une réponse à une annonce que j'ai vu...

This type of mistake is rather rare, but still it does illustrate an element of interference.

While still dealing with the present, we should note that in French the α moment may express an event about to occur in the future while the ω moment may express a past event which is still continuing in the ω moment.

(34) *Je venais de finir mes examens et je pense des vacances de Noël que je vais passer à notre maison à la campagne.

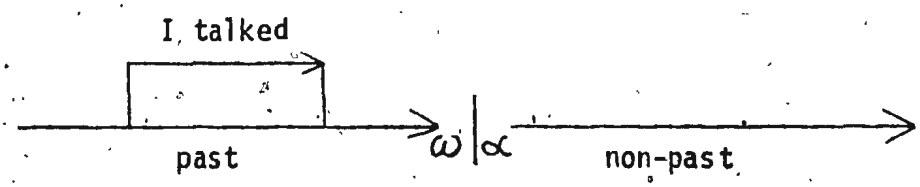
In (34) we again see the incidence/decadence dichotomy at work. To express the experiential ω moment English must use the past tense or the present perfect. From previous diagrams we saw that the ω moment in English is represented as being the very last moment of the past (still being in the realm of the past), while in French it is represented as part of the present; we also notice that the ω moment of French is represented at the level of decadence and in order for English to provide a representation of decadence it must use its aspect system - hence the present perfect. The occurrence of the past perspective in English in such circumstances is the cause of interference above.

The type of error illustrated in (34) did not occur very frequently at the university level. As for sentences illustrating errors of the α moment

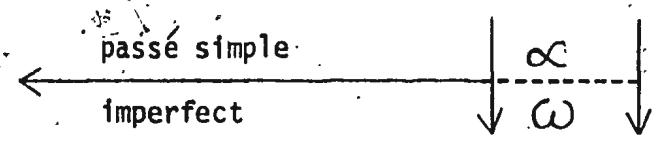
used for ~~the future~~, the papers studied did not contain any. Since the α moment is the very first moment of the non-past which can include the future, the possibility of such errors are certainly lessened.

3.5 Differences in Representations of Past Time

Having seen how English interferes with one's learning of the present tense in French, we shall now turn our attention to the other tense forms of the French indicative. From the diagrams of the chronogenesis of the verbal systems at the beginning of this chapter, we note that none of the tenses in English corresponds exactly to any of the French tenses. English has only one past tense, which normally represents a completed event and this event is represented as viewed only from the level of incidence.

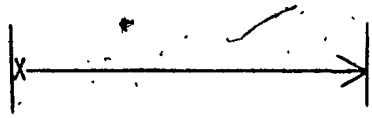


In French, however, there are two basic past tense morphologies (in literary usage, at least) - passé simple and imperfect and neither one corresponds exactly to the representation of the past tense in English.



The passé simple is a tense which is not used today in everyday spoken usage as many of its uses have been taken over by other forms. "This tense represents in the system the incidence of a past event...the representation is therefore of a complete, integral, undivided event. (Exterior unit view)" (Hewson 1972: 142). In the passé simple which remains totally in the level of incidence, "the subject is necessarily 'trapped' in the initial moment,

and the event, as a dynamism, is purely prospective;



It is not surprising, therefore, that the sense of the passé simple is often inceptive,..." (Hewson 1972: 142-143).

(35) Il fut bien triste quand il reçut ma lettre.

In (35) the sense of the passé simple is inceptive since it is the receiving of the letter which initiated the feeling of sadness, which then implicitly (not explicitly) continues.

Both the passé simple and the past tense in English represent the incidence of a past event. Both of them also have an overtone of the perfective - they view an event as having a beginning, middle, and end. But, it is not always true to say that the past tense of English is "often inceptive" although it certainly can be so.

It is interesting to note that since the system of tense in the English verbal system does not have a tense to represent the decadence of an event, in a sentence such as the following:

(36) He was sad when he received my letter.

we do not know if the receiving of the letter initiated the sadness or if he was already sad when he received the letter; this can only be determined from the context.

Considering what has been said about the passé simple up to this point, one would expect there to be very little interference of the English past tense on learning the usage of the passé simple. But, since not a single instance of the passé simple occurred in the essays of French examinations the evidence for such interference is lacking. What is said below concerning the passé composé, however, may frequently be considered relevant to the

passé simple as well.

3.5.1 Interference on Learning the Imperfect

The imperfect is a very frequently used tense in French. "This tense represents in the system the decadence of a past event...the representation is therefore of an event that is materially in progress" (Hewson 1972: 142). Being in decadence the subject may be imagined as in a position facing the part of the event which is already completed. In order for English to provide a representation at this level it has to make use of its system of aspect and from there we get interference from English.

As the name implies, the imperfect tense is used to represent actions which are imperfect - not completed. Since the past tense in English has an overtone of the perfective, English must make use of something else to express the imperfective. To express the imperfective English normally utilizes the progressive (be plus present participle).

(37) She was going to buy a new dress.

We shall now consider the uses of the imperfect tense in French and some of the errors committed by students (where they used English structures instead of the imperfect, which was the required tense in French). There is one usage of the imperfect where students made very few mistakes - description.

(38) Ce n'était pas vite...

(39) Il faisait froid...

But, even with description there was some confusion with the passé composé, as in

(40) *Quand j'ai été un petit enfant...

(41) *...et quelquefois ils sont étées mauvais.

Notice that errors involving the use of forms other than the imperfect

for description, in (40) and (41), involved être. Now, être is the representation in French of to be. Verbs such as to be, to know, etc., are classified as stative verbs, which may be defined as materially complete but temporally incomplete. In English, a materially complete event is represented by the preterit. So, considering that the stative verbs are materially complete, English-speaking students may tend, normally, to represent them by the preterit and therefore the passé composé in French.

(42) *Aussi, pendant la semaine de examens de Noël, j'étais très heureux parce que j'ai su que je pourrais aller chez moi bientôt.

When dealing with the English verbal system the main consideration seems to be for the material, whereas in French the main consideration is for the temporal. In French only temporally complete events may be represented by the passé composé; temporally (or materially) incomplete events requiring to be represented by the imperfect. Since the stative verbs are temporally incomplete, French requires that they be represented by the imperfect. This fact plus the fact that materially complete verbs are represented by the preterit in English, account for errors in (40 - (42).

For incompleted actions in the past French also requires use of the imperfect tense, while English normally uses the progressive.

(43) He was speaking when I entered.

(44) He was going into the basement when the bomb exploded.

Here we see that the compound nature of the English imperfect is the source of interference in the following:

(45) *Ce n'était pas vite comme un avion, mais il était faut parce que...

(46) *Nous étions aller acheter des choses pour mes frères et mes soeurs quand...

(47)*...il était commencent à neiger mais...

Although errors of the type illustrated in (45) - (47) were not extremely common, there were several instances of this type which do show interference.

French also makes use of the imperfect tense to represent the continuation of a habit.

(48) Il travaillait tous les jours.
He used to work (worked) every day.

A common mistake involving this usage of the imperfect is to use the passé composé where the correct verbal form is the imperfect. When the passé composé is used instead of the imperfect in (48) what is meant is not the continuation of a habit, but rather separate events each day.

(49) Il a travaillé tous les jours.

We see the type of mistake in (49) illustrated in the following:

(50) *Quand j'étais petit, je n'avais pas besoin d'argent.
Je suis allé à l'école...

(51) *Le temps faisait beau les après-midi mais j'ai étudié pour mes examens. Les nuits, j'ai regardé la télévision et ensuite j'ai étudié pour cinq heures.

Again, in (50) and (51) the events expressed are stative and are therefore materially complete, which means that they normally require the preterit in English. Now, English preterits are normally represented by the passé composé in French, and thus we have interference.

The imperfect is also used for past reporting of actions originally expressed in the present.

(52) Elle a répondu qu'il était malade.
She answered that he was sick.

In (52) we have a retrospective view of an event. When English uses its tense system rather than its aspect system to represent past events, there

is a possibility that interference from English will be lessened. The following pattern often occurs when reporting past events in English: events which were represented by the non-past tense in the present are normally reported by using the simple past tense, while events which were represented by the progressive are normally reported by utilizing the progressive form (sometimes events represented by the simple non-past are reported by the progressive).

In reporting (as was just previously mentioned) there is room for interference from English since the English preterit is ordinarily represented in French by the passé composé and the English progressive is composed of more than one word. However, since none of the students had errors in this use of the imperfect, we cannot report on any interference.

3.5.2 Depuis, etc.

With certain conjunctions such as depuis, etc., the imperfect is used for events begun at a remoter period and still continuing.

(53) Nous sommes ici depuis un an.
We have been here for a year.

(54) Nous étions ici depuis un an.
We had been here for a year.

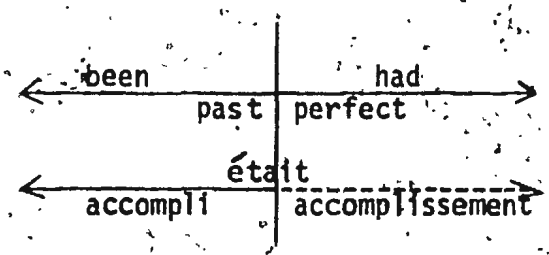
Instead of using the present and imperfect for (53) and (54) respectively, many students had the following:

(55) *Nous avons été ice depuis un an. (Instead of 53)

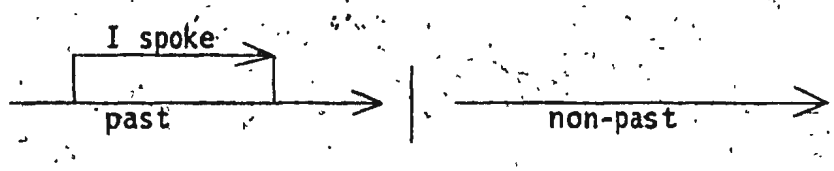
(56) *Nous avions été ice depuis un an. (Instead of 54)

As we can see, students very often use the present perfect for (53) and the plus-que-parfait for (54) since these are the forms used in English. Thus, it seems as if the English aspect system is an important factor in causing interference.

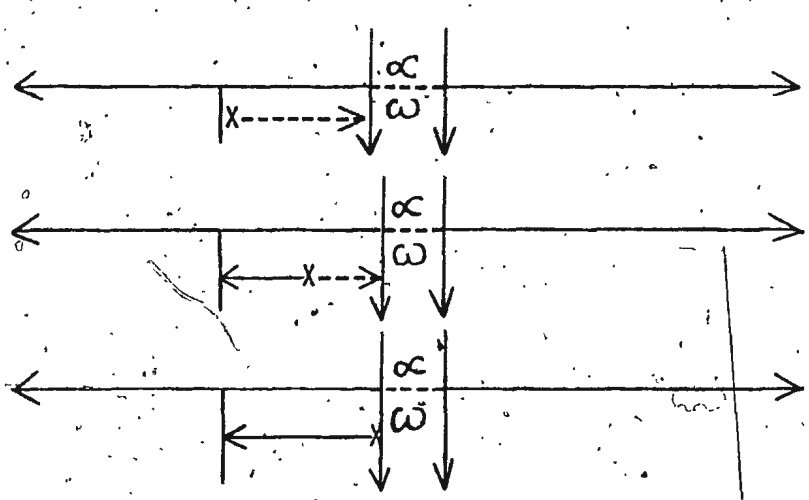
Underlying these different types of errors is the fact that the French tense system is represented in both incidence and decadence, while the English tense system can only represent an event in incidence. To represent an event in decadence it must normally use its system of aspect which is composed of at least two elements. The following diagram illustrates how French and English represent an event from a perspective viewpoint:



Also, the English past tense represents a completed event in the past



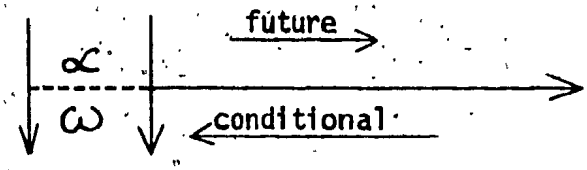
while the imperfect (which is the only French past tense we shall consider here since the passé simple never occurred) represents an incomplete event. The following diagrams show at least three different representations of the imperfect.



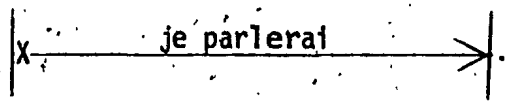
3.6 Future Time

Now, we shall discuss the tenses which are used to represent future

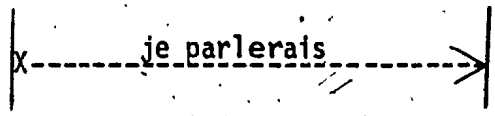
time in the French verbal system: future and conditional.



The French future tense represents the prospective realization of an event, and represents the incidence of the event,



while the conditional represents the potential realization of an event by representing the decadence of that event; since the decadence of a future event is notionally null, all that remains in the representation is the accomplissement virtuel.



It is interesting to note at this point that neither of these tenses exists in English. However, the English tense system does have a non-past tense which is prospective, and, since it includes in its representation all time which is not in the realm of the past, can include future time in its representation. Besides using the non-past tense to represent the future, English also utilizes its aspect system to represent the time covered by the French future tense.

(57) J'y serai quand vous arriverez.
I will be there when you arrive.

In (57) where the French verbal system requires the use of the future tense (serai), English uses its aspect system (will be), while for the French future tense form arriverez English uses its non-past tense form arrive, and does not require identity of verb form between subordinate clause and main

clause.

3.6.1 Interference on Learning the French Future Tense

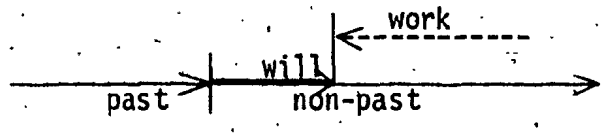
Above we saw that while the French verb has a distinct morphology for the future tense, English does not. To represent the time covered by the French future tense, the English verbal system requires the use either of its non-past tense or of its system of aspect. Following are examples illustrating use by Anglophones of the English non-past tense to represent time covered by the French future tense.

(58) *Quand nous arrivons au Caroline du Sud, la première chose que tu verras...

(59) *Quand les vacances arrivent, le temps sera parfait pour nos vacances favoris.

Both the English non-past and the French future represent the incidence of an event in the realm of the future. But, they do not represent the same space of time. The French future tense represents time that has no experiential existence, but has only a prospective realization. However, the English non-past does express time within the experience of the subject but can often be extended to provide a representation of future time. Certainly one of the cases where the non-past does refer to future time is in a subordinate clause in which the verb in the principal clause has future reference.

In many cases English uses its aspect system to express future time. "It is the role of the auxiliary (will or shall) to occupy a stretch of the non-past, as large or as small as may be useful, so that the event (expressed by the infinitive) must be situated just beyond this stretch. The future is formed by placing the event outside the portion of the non-past occupied by the auxiliary" (Hirtle 1963: 112).

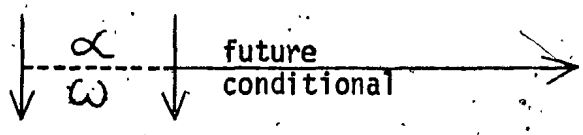


Although French may utilize aller + infinitive to represent future time, it can also use its future tense to express future time.

Again we may trace the problem back to the representations of the present. The French verbal system has a present tense and any expression of time by means of the tenses beyond the present is future. English, however, has no present tense; it has only two tenses - past and non-past - and any tense form which does not express past time expresses time which is in the realm of the non-past.

3.6.2 Interference on Learning the French Conditional Tense

The other tense form in French expressing future time, but from the level of decadence, is the conditional. Whenever the future is to be expressed in the matrix of past time, it will be transformed into the conditional.



Since, in French, incidence is constantly becoming decadence, future time expressed in the matrix of the past becomes the conditional.

(60) Je serai prêt dans deux ou trois minutes.

(61) Il m'a dit qu'il serait prêt dans deux ou trois minutes.

Since English, within the realm of its tense system, does not have, in the strictest sense, a morphology used solely for expressing future time, it does not have one for the conditional. Also, the English tense system does not have any means of representing an event in decadence; to express the decadence of an event the aspect system is required. When the aspect system

is put into use we see that when the future is to be expressed in the matrix of the past the conditional is required. The modal auxiliary shall or will is the one used to express the future; should or would (the past of shall and will respectively) is the modal auxiliary used for expressing the conditional.

Following are student errors illustrating incorrect use of a verb form where French requires the use of the conditional tense.

(62) *...vous pourriez venir chez moi pour les vacances de Noël. Le jour de Noël nous irions à l'église le matin et...nous prenons le dîner.

(63) *Si nous allons à Paris nous visiterons les théâtres célèbres. Aussi nous irions au cinéma et visitons des bâtiments qui...

To represent the time expressed by the French conditional tense, English must utilize the modal auxiliaries would or should (now archaic) plus an infinitive. But, in compound sentences the English verbal system does not always require that the modal be repeated in the second part of the sentence, as is illustrated in (62) and (63). If the modal is not repeated there is no immediate indicator that the conditional is to be used in French. With the modal removed all that remains is the infinitive, which is identical to the indicative, and so the student uses the "present tense" (which is really non-past) where the conditional is required.

The following sentences illustrate another type of error committed by Anglophones where French requires use of the conditional.

(64) *Aussi dans le lac il y a beaucoup de poissons et nous pouvions pêcher si tu l'aimerais.
Also, in the lake there are many fish and we could go fishing if you would like to.

(65) *Nous pouvions nager souvent et nous jouerions au tennis tous les jours.
We could swim often and play tennis every day. (In this sentence the student was telling of what they expected to do during the coming holidays, not what happened in the past.)

In English could may represent either the past of can or the conditional of can; thus it may be represented in French by pouvais (imperfect) or by pourrais (conditional). So, the use of could (past or conditional of can) may be ambiguous. In (64) and (65) Anglophones used the imperfect of pouvoir where the conditional was required.

3.7 Tense Agreement

For sentences which have two different verbs representing actions that are roughly contemporaneous, in subordinate clauses of time French requires that the two verbs agree in tenses, whereas English does not make this agreement (examples from Mansion 1963: 213):

(66) Il sortira quand il fera beau.
He will go out when it is fine.

(67) Il sort quand il fait beau.
He goes out when it is fine.

(68) Il sortait quand il faisait beau.
He would go out when it was fine.

(69) Il sortit quand il fit beau.
He went out when it was fine.

(70) Il est sorti quand il a fait beau.
He went out when it was fine.

(71) Il était sorti quand il avait fait beau.
He had gone out when it was fine.

(72) Il sortirait quand il ferait beau.
He would go out when it was fine.

(73) Il sera sorti quand il aura fait beau.
He will have gone out when it was fine.

(74) Il serait sorti quand il aurait fait beau.
He would have gone out when it was fine.

Examples (66) - (74) illustrate the strict parallelism which normally exists in the French tenses when the actions expressed by both verbs are roughly contemporaneous.

Since English does not require the same tense agreements as French, errors occur in this respect with great frequency.

(76) *Quand j'ai vingt ans, j'irai en France.

(76) *Quand tu arrives, nous irons au musée...

(77) *Il y aura des cinémas à qui nous pouvons aller...

Since English does not require the same strict parallelism of tenses as French, we see that the English structures interfere with the correct usage of the French tense system.

There are several factors in the English verbal system which interfere with one's learning of the French tense system, and they all stem from the fact that the content systems underlying the verbal systems in both languages are very different. English has only two tenses in the indicative and they carry overtones of the perfective; they express a materially complete event (which only incidence can do). French has five tenses in the indicative, some being at the level of incidence and others at the level of decadence. In the quasi-nominal each language has three verbal forms (infinitive, present participle, past participle) but the notions expressed by these are often very different in each language, causing interference.

CHAPTER FOUR

INTERFERENCE OF THE ENGLISH MODAL AUXILIARIES

4.1 Introduction

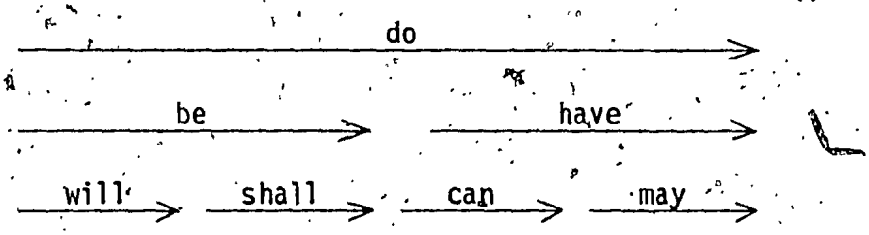
Mention has already been made of the modal auxiliaries will, shall, and can (and their past forms would, should, and could); and the role they play in interfering with the learning, by Anglophones, of the French tense system. However, since French really does not have any modal auxiliaries it is necessary to consider the English modals in some detail, and to determine their role as a factor causing interference in the learning of the system of tense in French.

"The modal auxiliaries...are distinguished by the fact that they have no -s in the third person singluar (sharing this morphology with the subjunctive) and have no infinitive or participle forms" (Hewson 1972: 89). Following are a list of the English modal auxiliaries:

Non-past	Past
will	would
shall	should
can	could
may	might
must	
(ought)	
(dare)	
(need)	

The modal auxiliaries, like the grammatical auxiliaries, have undergone a considerable amount of lexical dematerialization, but to a lesser degree than the grammatical auxiliaries. As a result, only the final two (dare and need), which are borderline cases, are to be found as full verbs. "The

limited morphological range of the modals, in fact, indicates their grammatical subjugation" (Hewson 1972: 93). The modals have suffered such an amount of lexical dematerialization that, notionally, they would seem to underlie all the other verbs except the grammatical auxiliaries. Hewson (1972: 95) speculates that the notional relationship to full verbs may be somewhat as follows:



In English the "modal auxiliaries are felt to have notional pre-existence: they convey notions (like capacity, permission, obligation) that are necessarily seen to exist prior to the existence of the event declared by the full verb (the infinitive)" (Hirtle 1963: 126-127).

Since the modals convey notions such as capacity, etc., "the event as expressed by the infinitive is granted only virtual existence in time. Thus the sentence

He can run a mile in four minutes.

declares the existence of the runner's capacity wihtout evoking the actualization of the event (<u>run</u>) itself. Similarly in

He could run a mile in four minutes when he was younger.

the event is seen as a potentiality in the past. This explains the particular aptness with which these auxiliaries replace the subjunctive mood: the latter indicates the refusal to approach the actual on the vertical axis of the chronogenesis...; the auxiliaries indicate a withdrawal from the actual into the virtual on the horizontal axis of the same" (Hirtle 1963: 127).

Since the modal auxiliaries do not evoke the actualization of an event,

it becomes clear why there is such restricted use of the modals in the past - only will, shall, can, and may even have past forms. Since events in the past normally have to be actualized, the use of the modal auxiliaries in the past must certainly be restricted.

"The past forms (could, might, etc.) have assumed a further role. Their temporal anteriority to the non-past forms (can, may, etc.) has been carried over to their notional content in many contexts. Just as can, etc., are considered notionally anterior to the full verb, so could, etc., are considered notionally anterior to the condition expressed by the non-past forms. Not only is the event drawn into the realm of virtuality, but the condition of the event also. Thus the past forms of these auxiliaries can express a greater degree of virtuality than the non-past forms. For example, in

He could run a mile in four minutes, if he trained.

could declares, not the existence of the runner's capacity, but the possibility of its existence" (Hirtle 1963: 128).

4.2 Mechanism Underlying the Use of the Modals

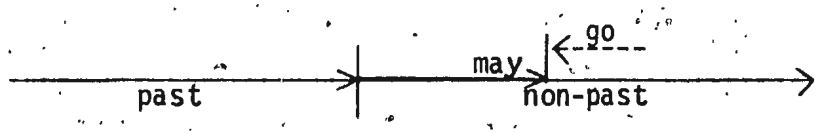
Having briefly discussed the modal auxiliaries of English, we should now turn our attention to a discussion of the mechanism underlying their use. The modal auxiliaries are used with a following infinitive since it is the infinitive that carries the content of the verb, and the modals having undergone a considerable amount of lexical dematerialization. When the modals combine with an infinitive to express notions such as capacity, permission, etc., (considering the non-past forms) the modal auxiliary's function is to occupy a stretch of the non-past so that the event, which is expressed by the infinitive, must be situated beyond the stretch.

(1) I will work during the day.

(2) You may go when you feel like it.

(3) One must be careful when riding in a canoe.

In these examples the auxiliary occupies a space of the non-past with the event, which is separated from the subject and not directly predicated of the subject, situated just beyond the stretch of time occupied by the modal. Diagrammatically, (2) may be represented as follows:



To avoid any confusion it must be stated that the role of the modal auxiliaries as represented in the above diagram is the role of all the English modals which are non-past.

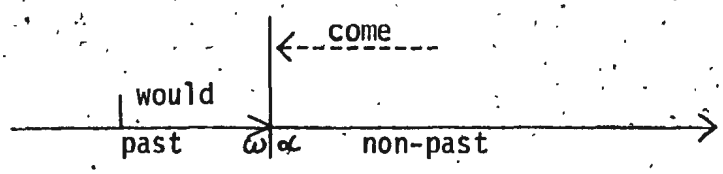
There are four past forms of the modals - would, should, could, and might - and their role is similar to that of the non-past forms, except for being situated in the realm of the past. The past forms of the modals can occupy any stretch of the past. "Now if the auxiliary is at the threshold of the non-past, the infinitive, lying in its subsequence, must fall in the non-past. But the past morpheme declares the absence of the auxiliary's material content from the non-past so that the virtual event (infinitive) is evoked in a time-sphere from which its condition is declared absent. The effect in discourse is...to declare the condition of the event expressed by the auxiliary does not exist as a reality but only as a potentiality.... This mechanism of thought thus permits could, might, etc., to assume a role of notional anteriority, so that they can express a greater degree of virtuality than their non-past counterparts" (Hirtle 1963: 128-129). For example, the modal in

(4) He would come, given the chance.

is capable of carrying a greater charge of hypothesis than the modal in

(5) He will come, given the chance.

The use of the modal in (4) illustrates the past form of a modal used to express the conditional. Diagrammatically, it may be represented as follows:

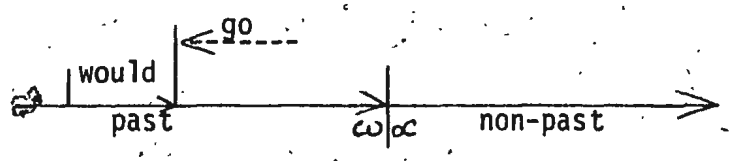


The use of the modal plus infinitive to represent the conditional will hereafter be referred to as the extended usage of the past forms of the modals.

Now we shall turn our attention briefly to the unextended use of the past forms of the modals, that is, the use with genuine past reference. Since the past form of the modal may be situated anywhere in the past, the structure modal + infinitive (the content) can certainly have reference to the past, as in

(6) When he was working he would go to the movies twice a week.

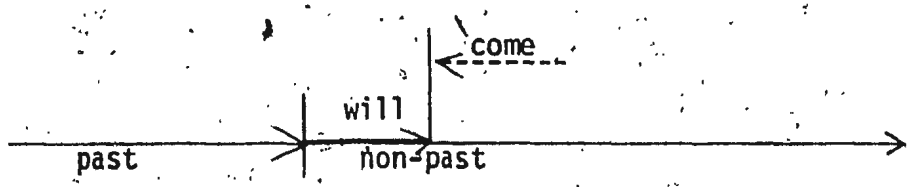
Diagrammatically, (6) may be represented as follows:



Since both the modal and the infinitive are situated in the realm of the past their reference must be genuinely past.

4.3 Will and Shall with Future Reference

Having dealt with the English modal auxiliaries in general, we will now turn our attention to will and shall in the sense of their referring to the future (they have other uses which are beyong the scope of this paper). The most usual way for Anglophones to form the future is to use will or shall plus an infinitive. The use of either of the modal auxiliaries is to occupy a stretch of the non-past with the action of the event being situated just outside this stretch.



This diagram, which represents (5), shows the auxiliary (will) as providing a place for the conditions of the event (come).

4.4 Would and Should Expressing Conditional

The past forms of will and shall (would and could) which can carry a greater charge of hypothesis than will and shall "on the level of expression are the equivalents of the conditional..." (Hirtle 1963: 130) in French. It is noteworthy, in French, Guillaume says, that the conditional tense carries a greater charge of hypothesis than the future.

4.5 Will, Shall, Would, and Should

We shall now turn our attention to the use of the modal auxiliaries in discourse, particularly to the use of those expressing the future and the conditional. In sentences which have compound verbs the modal auxiliary is not always repeated in both parts of the verb.

(7) I will go and get the groceries.

(8) He would go and come as he pleased.

Now, in English the infinitive and indicative forms of a verb are identical, and in (7) and (8) above, many English-speaking students would not realize that the second element of the compound verb is an infinitive form and not an indicative.

Many Anglophones seem to realize that would or should plus an infinitive gives the conditional; it is often called the conditional tense or conditional mood.

(9) He said he would come if the weather was fine.

However, it seems as if many speakers of English do not realize that would (or should) plus an infinitive is often used to represent repeated actions in the past, as is the case in (6). Since students normally associate would + infinitive with the extended usage (conditional) and since the infinitive and indicative forms are identical in English, students represented (8) in French as

(10) *Il irait et vient...

instead of the correct form,

(11) Il allait et venait...

which correctly translates the unextended (with past reference) usage. We should note at this point that French does not have the extended/unextended contrast, and so ambiguity of reference is avoided.

The fact that the modal is not used in the second part of the verb, plus the fact that the infinitive and indicative forms are identical also leads to errors when students attempt to represent the future in French.

(12) He will go to Montreal and return on the same day.
Il ira à Montréal et reviendra le même jour.

Instead of using the future tense in the second part (reviendra) of (12), students will very often use the present tense (revient). The two points indicated at the beginning of this paragraph may also account for errors when students try to use the conditional tense in French.

(13) He said he would to to Montreal and return on the same day.
Il a dit qu'il irait à Montréal et reviendrait le même jour.

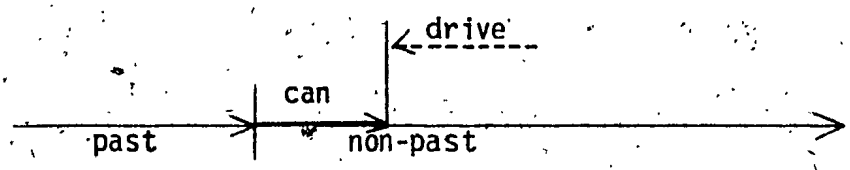
Instead of using the conditional tense in the second part of the verb (reviendrait), the present tense will often be utilized. Since there is a morphological distinction between the infinitive and indicative forms in French, the student must chose the correct form; in English, however, such a choice is not necessary.

4.6 Can, May, Must, etc.

We will now turn our attention to the other modal auxiliaries can, may, must, etc. The role of these modals, like the ones representing the future and conditional, is to occupy a stretch of the non-past (or the past for past forms with past reference) with the event occurring just beyond this stretch of time. Let us consider the following sentence:

(14) I can drive from St. John's to Port Aux Basques in a day.

Diagrammatically we would have the following representation:

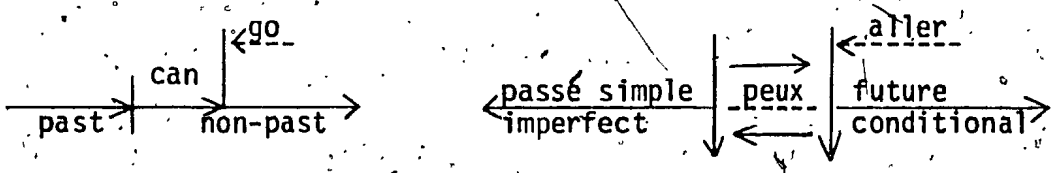


4.6.1 Can

The modal auxiliary can is represented in French by pouvoir. Pouvoir, being one of the verbes de puissance which notionally underlie all other verbs in French (être, vouloir, savoir, devoir are the other verbes de puissance), in many ways has a similar function to the modal can. For example, in

(15) I can go to Montreal tomorrow.
Je peux aller à Montréal demain.

the role of both can and peux is to occupy a space of time so that the event can immediately follow it.



From the diagram we can see that the modal in English and the verbe de puissance in French serve to separate the event from the subject so that the event (infinitive) is not directly predicated of a subject.

The modal auxiliary can does have a past tense form (could) which can

have more than one representation in French. The auxiliary could may have either extended usage and be represented in French by pourrait (for the third person singular), as in

(16) He says that we could swim in the lake during the summer holidays.
Il dit que nous pourrions nager dans le lac pendant les vacances d'été.

or it could have unextended usage, with genuine past reference. Many native English-speakers often overlook the extended use of the modal, as indicated by (16), and think of could only in terms of its unextended use, as is indicated by the following sentence:

(17) *Nous pouvions nager souvent et nous jouerions au tennis tous les jours. (The context of this sentence indicates that the reference is to some future event.)

Example (17) shows how Anglophones use could with future reference and to do so use mistakenly the imperfect of pouvoir. Before leaving (17), however, I would like to indicate that an English-speaker is not accustomed to making this choice of tense since could is the same in English no matter what the reference.

Could is also correctly represented in French by the imperfect of pouvoir when the reference is to an event which took place in the past.

(18) Last year he could swim every day. (could = was able)
L'année dernière il pouvait nager tous les jours.

Since the English and French representations are similar in structure for (18), no evidence of interference occurred in any of the papers that were studied, although one might well expect students to use the conditional in (18).

4.6.2 May

The English modal auxiliary may, like can, expresses potentiality. Like can, it also has a past form (might), and is represented in French by the

verbe de puissance pourvoir. The uses of may and might are also very similar to those of can and could, and what has been said about the latter two can be applied to may and might.

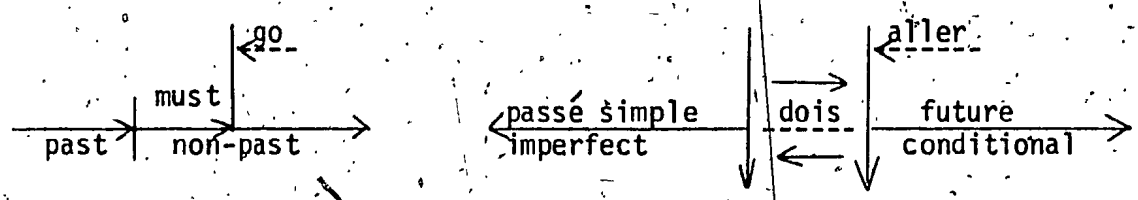
4.6.3 Must

Very briefly we shall mention the modal must and its representation in French (devoir or falloir). There is no evidence, from the papers studied, of modal interference from must. Often when must is used in the sense of "it is necessary" students utilize the impersonal verb (il faut que...). Also, in many cases where must is utilized, students used a structure very similar to the one employed in English (devoir + infinitive).

(19) Il faut que j'aille à l'école pour apprendre à lire.

(20) Je dois aller à l'école.
I must go to school.

Following are diagrams which represent both the French and English representations of (20):



These diagrams indicate that the function of must and dois is to occupy a stretch of time, with this stretch separating the event from the subject.

Before leaving the auxiliary must, I would like to indicate that its representation in French (present of devoir) is a verbe de puissance. This means that, in French, devoir is one of the verbs which is felt notionally to underlie other verbs in French.

4.6.4 Ought

As was previously indicated (section 4.1) ought is a borderline case as

a modal. There are certain peculiarities about the use of ought: (a) it requires the use of to before an infinitive,

(21) You ought to be home.

(b) it has no past form;

(22) He ought to have gone home.

Notice that (22) has past reference, not by using the past form of ought, but by using a transcendent infinitive. (c) There are certain dialectal peculiarities with the use of ought, as in

(23) He didn't ought to go.

The English modal ought is represented in French by parts of devoir and falloir.

(24) One ought never to be unkind.
Il ne faut jamais être malveillant.
On ne dois jamais être malveillant.

(25) You ought to go and see the Exhibition.
Vous devriez aller voir l'Exposition.

In (24), which expresses obligation, the present tense of falloir or devoir is used as the representation, in French, of ought; in (25), which expresses desirability, the conditional form of devoir serves as the representation of ought. Again, I must point out that no evidence of interference turned up probably because of the similarity in structure to the English.

4.6.5 Dare and Need

The other two modals in English which are borderline cases will not be discussed in this section since they are represented in French by the regular verb forms and in most cases interference, when it does occur, will be due to some other factor than modality. Perhaps the only error likely to occur would be because of lack of necessity of expressing the modal in both parts of a compound verb in English. Students may sometimes use the indicative

instead of the infinitive in the second part of the verb since they are identical in English. This type of error has been mentioned previously and appears to be common with all the modal auxiliaries when they are not used in the second part of a compound verb.

CHAPTER FIVE

INTERFERENCE OF THE ENGLISH VERBAL SYSTEM ON LEARNING THE FRENCH SYSTEM OF MOODS

5.1 Introduction

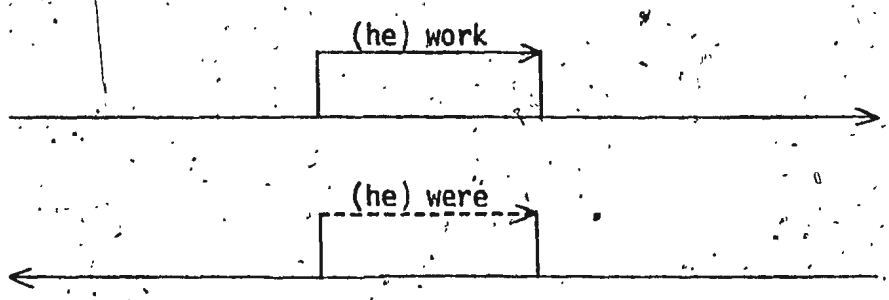
In the first two chapters of this paper we have shown that in both French and English verbal systems there are three different moods - quasi-nominal, subjunctive, and indicative. At the level of the quasi-nominal the representation is the least developed, the event not being allocated to a time-sphere and not predicated directly of a subject; the representation in the subjunctive mood is more developed, being predicated directly of a subject but still not allocated to a time-sphere in universe time; the indicative represents the completion of the chronogenesis of the verb with the event being predicated of a subject and being allocated to a specific time-sphere in universe time.

Although the same three moods exist in the two languages, the mechanism of each mood is rather different for the languages with which we are concerned. Not only is the mechanism of mood different for English and French, but also the uses of the mechanisms are also different. Since such differences exist, we can expect English-speaking students learning French to commit errors regarding mood. The remainder of this section of the paper will be devoted to an examination of the differences which exist between the mechanisms of the moods in English and French and also of the differences in the use of these mechanisms, and showing how differences result in interference.

5.2 The English Subjunctive

Differences between English and French at the level of the quasi-nominal mood have been discussed in Chapter Three, so we shall commence our discussion in this chapter by considering the subjunctive mood in each language. First

of all, we shall discuss the subjunctive in English. Following is a diagram representing the English subjunctive (Hirtle 1967: 18):



As can be seen from the diagram, an event in the subjunctive mood is represented as occurring in time but not allocated to a time-sphere. In the present subjunctive the movement of universe time "is...seen to be ascending toward the future" (Hirtle 1967: 18) and the event is also seen as unrolling toward the future, but not being allocated to any time-sphere, "no representation of the event as real is possible" (Hirtle 1967: 18).

In the past subjunctive, universe time is seen as decadent, as unrolling towards the past, but event time is represented as unrolling in the direction of the future. Again, I wish to reiterate that the event is not represented as real since it is not allocated to a time-sphere, and thereby contrasts with the indicative, in which an event is allocated to a determined stretch of universe (or real) time.

So, when speaking of an event in the subjunctive mood, we speak not of a real event, but of a potential event. "In the English verbal system such an event is consequently not represented as being related in any way to our own personal empirical experience of time, and remains a potential, theoretical, unallocated event" (Hewson 1972: 70).

5.2.1 Present Subjunctive

The English verbal system does not have a morphology which is distinctive

only for representing the subjunctive. The subjunctive forms are identical to the infinitive and indicative forms except for two cases: (1) the verb to be, and (2) the third person singular where the indicative form ends in -s, but the subjunctive is unmarked. Hewson illustrates these differences in the following examples (1972: 71):

(1) I move that the meeting be adjourned.

(2) I insist that he withdraw the comment.

(3) If he withdraws the comment...(indicative)

Hirtle (1963) also pointed out certain syntactic peculiarities which are distinctive from the subjunctive: (1) it does not take the auxiliary do in the negative,

(4) I suggest that you not see him again.

and (2) it is not subject to the normal sequence of tenses, as can be illustrated by the following sentence from Hirtle (1963: 91):

(5) Joanna had insisted that he come.

It has previously been stated that the subjunctive in English represents potential, not experiential events. "Two systemic details therefore emerge which yield clues as to the role played by the subjunctive in the mechanical content system that underlies the simple verbal paradigm:

(1) It is independent of the mechanism of time-spheres, since it is not subject to syntactic sequence of tense,

(2) It represents a formal (i.e., potential) and not a material (or realized) event.

Consequently we have justification for placing it under the aspect of incidence (which represents the event as a form) and not under decadence (which represents the materiality of the event) in a position anterior to the definition of time-spheres" (Hewson 1972:72).

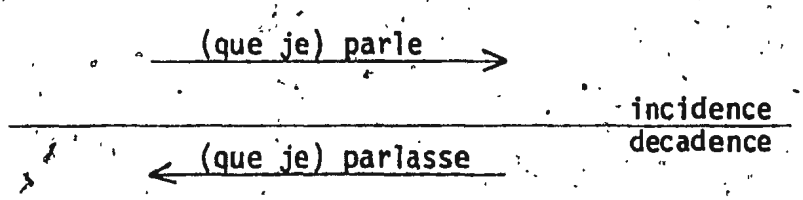
5.2.2 Past Subjunctive

English, besides having a present subjunctive, also has a past subjunctive whose only morphological contrast now in existence is found in the singular of the verb to be (I were, he were). This has led many linguists to conclude that English does not have a past subjunctive. It is true that there is a scarcity of distinctive morphological forms for representing the past subjunctive in discourse, but, nevertheless, there is some evidence that in the content system of the English verbal system the past subjunctive does exist. Hirtle (1967) agrees that the past subjunctive still exists in the content system of the English verbal system. He says that the capacity of the subject, in the past subjunctive, to cause an event to unroll in the direction of the future "is countered by universe time which is still represented as descending toward the past" (Hirtle 1967: 18). To account for the scarcity of past subjunctive forms in discourse Hirtle (1967) says that "This conflict between ascending event time and descending universe time would appear to be the reason for the restriction of the use of the past subjunctive in discourse to the auxiliaries and the copula" (1967: 18).

5.3 The French Subjunctive

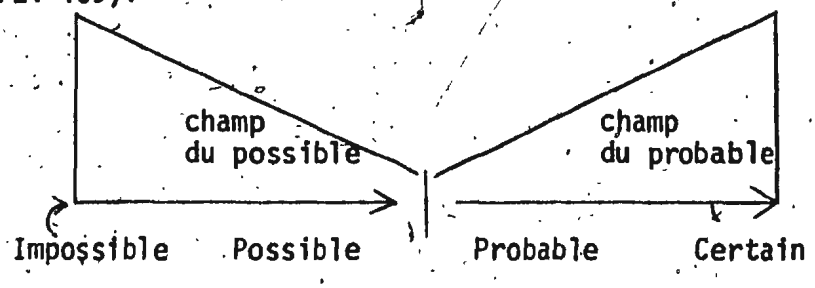
Now, we shall turn our attention to a brief discussion of the subjunctive mood in the French verbal system. In the subjunctive mood of the French verbal system "the event in motion may be seen either from the point of view of incidence (present subjunctive)or from the point of view of decadence (perfect subjunctive). The aspect of decadence will lead to the representation of an event being carried along by the flow of time as it appears to come from the future, pass through the present and flow off into the past. The aspect of incidence, on the other hand, will represent the event as coming to be..."

(Hewson 1972: 100).



At this point we should note that a basic contrast exists here with English, since the subjunctive in English is viewed only from the level of incidence.

Now, we shall discuss the exploitation of the mechanism of the subjunctive in the French verbal system. French uses the mechanism of the subjunctive in discourse to represent events which are felt notionally to be assigned to the realm of the possible (champ du possible). When the event is felt to be in the realm of the probable (champ du probable) one utilizes the indicative mood, as can be seen from the following diagram (adapted from Hewson 1972: 159):



Here we shall note an important contrast between French and English with respect to the use of the mechanism of the subjunctive. French exploits the mechanism of the subjunctive to represent possible events, while English does not take into account possibility or probability in its use of the subjunctive. In other words, in French, if the idée regardante is felt notionally to be in the champ du possible then the verb in the idée regardée is represented in the subjunctive mood, while this question (possibility/probability) is not applicable in determining mood in English.

These basic differences in the use of the mechanism of the subjunctive

are certainly sources of interference. Being concerned here with interference from English, it will be seen that the above mentioned differences in the use of the mechanism of the subjunctive account for the fact that Anglophones often use the indicative, when speaking French, where use of the subjunctive is required.

5.4 Expressions of Emotion or Judgment

The subjunctive is used in French to a much greater extent than in English. A very often used subjunctive, in French, occurs in the verb of the idée regardée if, in the idée regardante, there is an expression of emotion or judgment such as can be expressed by avoir peur, avoir honte, être triste, être content, être surpris, être fâché, craindre, regretter. In French, the idée regardée that is dependent on an idée regardante critique is judged in the champ du possible. In English, as was previously stated, we do not take into account the champ du possible and champ du probable when using the mechanisms of the subjunctive or indicative; such distinctions do not apply to English. As a result, speakers of English as a native language tend to use the indicative after expressions of judgment or emotion (the event is represented in English as not potential) instead of the subjunctive.

(6) *Je regrette que je suis si nerveuse.

(7) *Je suis content que les examens de Noël finiront à dix heures et demie aujourd'hui.

"A very real difference between French and English occurs in clauses subjected to a personal value-judgment. French regularly uses the subjunctive here, even though the event be empirical:

Je regrette qu'il soit venu.
I'm sorry he came.

English regularly uses the indicative here,..." (Hewson 1972: 164). Sentences

such as the above "form a stumbling block to any naive explanation of the subjunctive as representing simply a potential event" (Hewson 1972: 164).

Guillaume explains the use of the subjunctive as follows: "Si le verbe regretter, par exemple, veut comme idée regardante le mode subjonctif pour l'idée regardée, c'est qu'il fait partie de la série fort étendue des verbes critiques. Le regret suppose qu'on trouve quelque chose mal, fâcheux. C'est le cas clairement si je dis: je regrette qu'il soit venu, encore que la venue en question soit un fait affirmé, declaré certain" (Guillaume 1971a: 208).

In sentences where a clause is subjected to a personal value judgment "the idée regardée is placed in the subjunctive because of the existence of an idée regardante critique. By using the subjunctive here, in fact, speakers of French bring the force of the critical evaluation to bear not upon the occurrence of the event (= indicative) but upon its very nature, upon the idea of the event" (Hewson 1972: 165). It is because subjunctive events in French are represented as belonging to the totality of universe time that the subjunctive can bring the force of critical evaluation to bear upon the idea of the event. So, in a clause subjected to a personal value judgment since the idea of the event and not the occurrence of the event is being criticized, the event is represented notionally as potential and therefore the subjunctive is required.

5.5 Verbs Expressing Wish or Command

Another situation in which French employs use of the mechanism of the subjunctive is in a subordinate clause where the main clause expresses wish or command, as is done by préférer, aimer mieux, commander, demander, défendre, vouloir, désirer, souhaiter, permettre. Again, verbs of wish or command do

not necessarily command use of the mechanism of the subjunctive in English, and students may commit errors by using the indicative mood where the subjunctive is required.

Guillaume explains generally why verbs of wishing, etc., require use of the mechanism of the subjunctive in French. "Toutes les idées désidératives, quelle qu'en soit l'espèce, du moment qu'elles n'outrepassent pas le désir, le souhait, du moment qu'elles ne vont pas intrinsèquement plus loin que ce sentiment, sont des idées assujetties à ne pas sortir de l'en deça d'un seuil S, et donc à régir le mode subjonctif dont l'idée regardée prend la marque. De là: Je désire qu'il vienne, je souhaite qu'il le fasse, je veux qu'il le fasse" (Guillaume 1971a: 209).

As for verbs of command or order, Guillaume says that "L'idée d'ordre, de commandement, prise comme idée regardante, impose aussi à l'idée regardée la force subjonctif; et cela tient à ce que l'idée de commandement reste une idée désidérative et volative" (Guillaume 1971a: 209).

In cases where wish or command can be said to express a potential and not an actual experiential event, the subjunctive is used in English.

(8) I wish I were you.

(9) I demand that he withdraw his comment.

There are other instances where, instead of using the subjunctive, English makes use of the modal auxiliaries + infinitive (would come) since the English modals express a virtual event.

(10) I wish he would come.

For cases such as those illustrated by (8) and (9) one would not expect Anglophones to commit errors. But errors do occur when students attempt to represent sentences such as (8) and (9) in French.

(11) *...je souhaite que vous nous verriez bientôt.

(12) *...je veux que vous pourrez venir passer les vacances avec moi.

(13) *Je désire que tu iras ici...

The source of these types of errors can be traced to two problems at the level of the surface structures: (1) Most students have not been taught that there is a subjunctive mood in English and they do not recognize (8) and (9) as subjunctives. Thus, when they represent sentences such as (8) and (9) in French, students tend to use the indicative forms; and (2) Except for two cases which were mentioned previously, the subjunctive forms are identical to the indicative forms in English and so students will tend to represent verbs in French by using the indicative. One could possibly add a third reason, which is the fact that most teachers do not understand the subjunctive in French very well and so the subjunctive is poorly taught and certainly is not stressed. (The head of the French Department at Memorial University informed me that the subjunctive is not taught at the university level.)

A number of students seem to realize that for expressions of wishing French does require utilization of the mechanism of the subjunctive. However, some students seem to overgeneralize and use the subjunctive in the subordinate clause if espérer is the verb in the main clause. One may trace this error to interference from English. In English, hoping seems to be another form of wishing, and, forming an association with vouloir requiring use of the subjunctive mechanism, Anglophones are sometimes guilty of hypercorrection by using the subjunctive with espérer. But, vouloir and espérer do not overlap in meaning the way that wish and hope do. Guillaume justifies the use of the indicative in the idée regardée if the verb in the idée regardante is espérer in the following way: "Les choses se présente différe-

ment avec le verbe espérer. Avec ce verbe, l'idée regardante introduite est celle d'espoir. Or, l'espoir implique que l'alternative considerée n'est plus complètement irresolue et a déjà fait pécher de facto la balance en faveur de l'un de ses termes, ce qui constitue du reste la raison d'espérer, car si la balance était restée égale entre les deux terms de l'alternative, la raison d'espoir n'existerait pas" (Guillaume 1971a: 210). In English, however, the verb to hope is not necessarily as positive as espérer, and it is always followed by the indicative.

(14) I understand the question. At least I hope so.

(15) I hope you have better luck than I did.

5.6 Expressions of Doubt or Uncertainty

In French, expressions of doubt or uncertainty require use of the mechanism of the subjunctive, since events represented by such verbs deny or question the probability of the event. "Denial of probability entails the refusal to enter the field of the probable, and the matrix established is therefore that of the prior field of the possible" (Hewson 1972: 160). Since, under conditions similar to these, English employs the indicative, errors of the following type occurred:

(16) *Il est peu probable qu'il viendra demain. (probability denied)

(17) *Je ne suis pas sûr que vous avez raison. (probability denied)

Note, however, that if (17) were affirmative, the use of the indicative would be required in the subordinate clause since the event would be felt to be experiential and thus to be in the champ du probable.

(18) Je suis sûr que vous avez raison.

(19) Je crois qu'il la reconnaîtra.

If sentences of the type illustrated by (16) and (17) were represented in English there would not be utilization of the mechanism of the subjunctive since the question of possibility or probability is not taken into account when determining the use of the subjunctive in English.

(20) It is unlikely that he will come tomorrow.

(21) I'm not sure that you are right.

It is interesting to note, however, that in (20) English does employ the modal auxiliary which is used for expressing virtual, not actual, events.

5.7 Il faut que, etc.

In French there are certain impersonal expressions which, if found in the idée regardante, require use of the subjunctive in the idée regardée - expressions such as il faut que, il est nécessaire que, il est temps que, etc. In expressions such as these, an event is stated as being possible, but not probable or certain.

(22) Il faut que j'obéisse la loi.

(23) Il est possible qu'il la reconnaisse.

In (22) and (23) the conditions for the event are stated, and the conditions involve possibilities, and possibility, in French, requires use of the subjunctive.

The normal representation of (22) and (23) in English is as follows:

(24) I must obey the law.

(25) It is possible that he will (may) recognize her.

Note that English does not utilize the subjunctive, rather it expresses the event as virtual by means of the modal auxiliary. The use of the modal plus infinitive is not equated by speakers of English with the subjunctive and may account for the use, by Anglophones, of the indicative where French re-

quires that the subjunctive be used.

(26) *Il faut aussi que vous dites...

(27) *Maintenant il faut que je ferai mes études...

(28) *Il est nécessaire qu'il le sait.

Note that (28) may be represented in English as

(29) It is necessary that he know it.

In (29) know is a subjunctive form in English (necessity expressing potentiality), but since many Anglophones do not realize that English has a subjunctive there is a tendency for the indicative to be used where a subjunctive is required.

5.8 Les Frequent Occurrences of the Subjunctive

About 98% of the incorrect usage of the indicative where French requires the subjunctive (figure deduced from students' work studied) have been discussed up to this point. The types of errors illustrated to the end of this chapter occur much less frequently, but, nevertheless still need some discussion.

"The matrix of a relative clause is its preceding antecedent; if the existence of this antecedent is negated, we see the subjunctive used..." (Hewson 1972: 161). If the existence of the antecedent is negated, then the antecedent is a non-person, as is illustrated in the following sentence (Guillaume 1971a: 222):

(30) Il n'y a personne qui sache cela.

He then has the following to say about (30): "On dira: Il n'y a personne qui sache cela, qui ayant pour assiette un antécédent personne qui a été porté jusqu'à l'absence, jusqu'à l'annulation" (Guillaume 1971a: 222). So, in (30), where the antecedent is given negative chances of existing, French

employs the mechanism of the subjunctive. In such a case the event is felt notionally to be still in the champ du possible.

In English, where the conditions requiring the subjunctive are different from French, events relegated to the champ du possible may still require use of the indicative. Thus, when the antecedent is a non-person, English may still use an indicative form in the relative clause. This, then may account for the following error made by an Anglophone:

(31) *Il n'y a personne qui vous connaît.

If (31) were represented in English the use of the indicative would be required, and so an English-speaker will tend to use the indicative in a sentence such as (31) above.

When the antecedent of a relative clause is indefinite, and thus unknown, French uses the subjunctive mood. Again, since English does not require the subjunctive under such circumstances evidence of interference from English occurs.

(32) *Qui que vous êtes, allez-vous-en.

(33) *Quoi que tu dis, ne dis pas que c'est difficile.

In both (32) and (33) the antecedent is indefinite and, therefore, the subjunctive must be used in the relative clause. In contrast, English would use an indicative form in both (32) and (33) - this could probably be seen from the type of errors in these two sentences.

There are certain conjunctions in French (conjonctions virtualisantes) which require the subjunctive after them - conjunctions such as afin que, jusqu'à ce que, sans que, pour que, avant que, etc. First of all we shall consider the conjunction jusqu'à ce que and the reason for its requiring use of the subjunctive after it, when the reference is to a future event. This conjunction takes the subjunctive when used with future reference since ce,

the antecedent of qui, is indeterminate.

(34) J'attendrai jusqu'à ce qu'il vienne.

Since normal English usage requires the indicative in sentences such as (34), errors such as the following occur:

(35) *J'attendrai jusqu'à ce qu'il va à la maison.

Conjunctions such as sans que, "expressing negation are also followed by the subjunctive:" (Hewson 1972:163).

(36) Il est sorti sans que vous le sachiez.
He went out without your knowing.

"L'idée regardante absorbant que et lui assignant sa position peut, dans les locutions conjonctives, être une idée négative. La locution ainsi formée gouverne regulièrement le subjonctif. Par exemple: Sans que vous l'ayez su. Sans que est anticipatif...Il nous met en présence du non-existant encore, d'une situation où l'événement n'est pas encore arrivé" (Guillaume 1971a: 241). The preposition without does not govern the use of the subjunctive in English, and therefore one may expect interference from the English verbal system.

Conjunctions such as pour que, avant que, etc., are used to express events which are intendent, "or contingent on eventualities (and therefore indeterminate)" (Hewson 1972: 163); such events are assigned to the subjunctive. The conjunctions pour que, avant que, etc., are anticipatifs and, as such, require the subjunctive (Hewson 1972: 163):

(38) Je parle lentement pour que vous me compreniez.

(39) Mangez vite avant qu'il vienne.

Again, English-speaking students will use the indicative in (38) and (39).

As we have seen, there are many cases in which French exploits the mechanism of the subjunctive where English makes use of the indicative. The differences in the use of the subjunctive can be accounted for as follows:

(1) The utilization of the mechanism of the subjunctive is different for English and French. In French the subjunctive is employed for possible events, while the indicative is utilized for probable events. In English the question of possibility or probability is not even applied when deciding the use of mood. (2) The facts that (a) many Anglophones do not realize that English has a subjunctive mood, and (b) the subjunctive and indicative forms, in most cases, are identical, also account for errors committed by students with regard to mood. These facts seem to account sufficiently for interference from English in the realm of mood.

CHAPTER SIX

INTERFERENCE OF THE ENGLISH VERBAL SYSTEM ON LEARNING THE FRENCH ASPECT SYSTEM

6.1 Introduction

It has already been noted that differences exist between English and French in the areas of tense and mood. It has also been shown that the differences between the two languages within the realms of tense and mood account for interference (and thus mistakes) when Anglophones are attempting to master use of the French language. When learning the French tense system, evidence occurred indicating the English aspect system as the major interfering factor. In this particular chapter we shall discuss differences in the English and French verbal systems which lead to interference from English on learning the French system of aspect.

Both the English and French aspect systems have been discussed in earlier chapters, and will not be described in any detail here. Only when differences between the two verbal systems lead to interference from English will the aspect systems be discussed.

It has previously been stated that the English verbal system has seven tense forms (only two of these forms being indicative) and so may be expected to utilize its aspect system much more extensively than French which has ten tense forms (five of them being indicative). The reason, of course, why English exploits its system of aspect so extensively is that it needs to be able to express more temporal distinctions than its tense system is capable of. Since the French tense system is capable of making more temporal distinctions than the English tense system, it has not needed to extend its aspect system to the same extent as English has done.

To begin our discussion of the interference from the English verbal

system on the French aspect system, we shall start at the level of the quasi-nominal mood. Previous discussions have revealed that there are three tense forms in the quasi-nominal mood - infinitive, present participle, and past participle - of both English and French. However, the usage of the various forms are different, quite often, for the two languages.[4] The differences in the representations of the quasi-nominal mood which cause usage of the various forms to differ have already been shown to be the source of interference in the realm of tense.

Frequently Anglophones commit errors when learning French by using the present participle where French requires that the infinitive be used. For example, English-speakers may say

(1) *J'ai entendu chantant les enfants.

where correct usage requires

(2) J'ai entendu chanter les enfants.

Errors of this type have already been discussed in Chapter Three, but are to be found when dealing with the aspect systems, as we shall see.

6.2 Après

Following the preposition after English may utilize the present participle.

(3) After playing hockey he was very tired.

The preposition after would seem to require that its object contain an element of decadence. One can therefore justify use, by English, of the present participle in (3) since the -ing form has a suitable element of decadence in its representation.

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[4] See section 3.2 for examples illustrating differences in usage of various forms, and also for an explanation of these differences.

However, in the French verbal system it is the infinitive which is the most common representation of the event as a noun, the participles being normally used to represent events as adjectives.

(4) Chanter, c'est un plaisir.
Singing is a pleasure.
To sing is a pleasure.

Now, the French infinitive, which represents an event as totally in incidence, contains no element of decadence whatsoever. The preposition après (like after) seems to require that its object contain an element of decadence, and to obtain this suitable element of decadence French uses a compound infinitive (containing a past participle) following après.

(5) Après avoir joué au hockey il était fatigué.

In (5) French requires use of the infinitive (avoir) as an object of the preposition, and to get a suitable element of decadence uses the past participle (joué).

It is because of these differences in the quasi-nominal mood that errors such as the following were committed by Anglophones:

(6) *Après voir les quatre matches de hockey...

(7) *Après le recevoir, je l'ai mis dans une autre banque.

(8) *Après va à l'église...

In (6) and (7) the infinitive is used but no element of decadence is represented. In (8) there seems to be confusion of going and is going, the latter being represented in French by va.

6.3 Voice

At this point we shall discuss how voice may be seen as causing interference with an Anglophone's understanding and use of the French aspect system. With middle voice verbs in French there are errors committed by Anglophones,

indicating verbal interference from English. In considering these verbs it is important to note that the grammatical subject and grammatical object are identical, and therefore the subject is involved in, is the receiver of, his own actions. When the grammatical subject is involved in the consequences of his own actions (and such is the case if the subject and object are identical) French forms the passé composé with être as the auxiliary, while under similar circumstances English uses have as the auxiliary.

(9) Jean s'est levé à huit heures.
John got up at 8:00.

(10) Elle s'est lavé.
She washed (has washed) herself.

Since English uses have as the auxiliary in cases similar to (9) and (10) errors such as the following are sometimes committed by English-speaking students when they use French:

(11) *Puis, l'homme s'a arrêté...

Besides the pronominal verbs, there are sixteen other verbs in French which regularly require être as the auxiliary when forming the passé composé. These verbs are the verbs of resultant state which were mentioned in Chapter Two. "All these verbs represent actions which, when completed, result in a state of affairs where the subject is no longer free" (Hewson 1972: 127). As an example, we shall take the verb mourir. Once one is dead, ordinarily he is considered to be in a state where he is no longer free to continue dying. When the event is completed the subject is no longer considered free to simply resume or continue that action any further.

(12) Elle est morte la semaine dernière.

(13) Ils sont allés à Montréal hier.

It must be remembered that the use of être as the auxiliary for the verbs of resultant state is dependent on these verbs being intransitive. If

the verb has an object which is not identical to the grammatical subject, the verb is active, and, as such, requires avoir as the auxiliary.

(14) Il a monté les bagages.

The use by English of have where French regularly requires that être be used as the auxiliary can be seen as the source of interference in the following sentences:

(15) *Nous avons resté dans un grand hôtel...

(16) *Puis j'ai retourné chez moi pour une semaine.

Normally, English students associate the English past tense with the French passé composé. Since normal usage requires have (avoir) as the auxiliary when representing the passé composé in French, avoir was incorrectly used in (15) and (16).

Although many people do not realize it, English does have instances of middle voice construction.

(17) He was born in 1946.

(18) Are they gone yet?

However, in cases such as (18) English normally uses have, not be, as the auxiliary.

A rare case occurred when an Anglophone used morte as the equivalent of the simple past died in the following sentence:

(19) *Je suis désolé que votre poulet morte.

Died may be either a past tense form of the verb die (He died) or a past participle (He has died). In (19) the student seems to have confused the uses in English and to have carried this confusion into French.

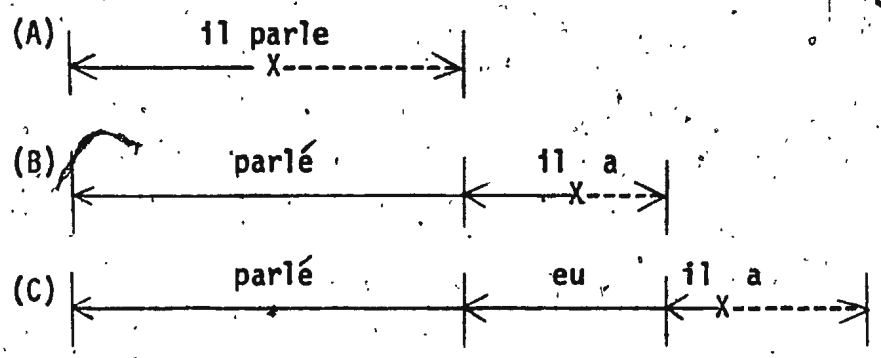
6.4 Formes Surcomposées

Although no evidence occurred, there is a distinct possibility of the

English verbal system interfering with the correct usage of the formes surcomposées in French. Both English and French have immanent and transcendent aspects, but only French has a bi-transcendent aspect.

Je marche	J'ai marché	J'ai eu marché	(bi-transcendent)
I walk	I have walked	I had walked	(transcendent)

"The formes surcomposées (or super-compound, double compound forms) are simply a logical continuation to the formation of the compound forms. Just as the latter, by relocating the subject in the time of the auxiliary, allow the original event to be transcended, and to become an event prior to the auxiliary, so too the bi-transcendent aspect shows a second stage of transcendence" (Hewson 1972: 116). So, in the formes surcomposées the auxiliary (of the compound form) itself is now transformed into a past participle, as can be seen in the following diagram:



In the double compound form (C) the new auxiliary which is created "opens up a further space of event time that is posterior both to the event time of the original auxiliary and to the event time of the original past participle:" (Hewson 1972: 115).

Although there are some curious compoundings such as If I had have known, English has no double compound forms like the French ones in the representation of time. In order for the English verbal system to express an event as

occurring prior to He has spoken it uses the past tense form of the auxiliary, thus giving He had spoken. Since English does not have a forme surcomposée there may be a tendency for Anglophones to use the imperfect of the auxiliary + past participle (plus-que-parfait) where the double compound form may be actually considered correct, and many teachers do not teach the surcomposé.

As can be gathered from the length of the present chapter, instances of the English verbal system interfering with the correct usage of the French aspect system are much less frequent than interference in learning the tense or mood systems.

CONCLUSION

The immediate study of this paper has been the interference from the English verbal system on the learning and use of the French verbal system within the realms of tense, mood, and aspect. Since the verbal system of a language is very difficult for a foreigner to comprehend, it is hoped that this particular study has thrown some light on the French and English verbs and has isolated some of the most serious problems for Anglophones who are attempting to master use of the French verbal system.

To undertake the present study, essays from student examination papers were examined to see if errors occurred illustrating verbal interference from English. The students, whose papers were studied, had not reached a high degree of sophistication (three years study in high school and from one to three semesters of university study). Consequently it is hoped that the present study will be of help to teachers who are attempting to teach a second language to beginners (or intermediates).

In order to fully understand the real (or underlying) reasons for interference of the English verbal system on one's understanding and exploitation of the French verbal system it is necessary to understand the structures of the two verbal systems. Thus, Chapter One was devoted to an examination of the English verbal system. In this chapter the information was taken from Hirtle and Hewson, who have applied the theories of Gustave Guillaume to the English verbal system. In Chapter Two there is discussion of the French verbal system, using the theories of Guillaume who had many profound insights into the structure of the French verb. These theories on the English and French verbal systems will help to satisfactorily explain many of the reasons for the verbal interference discussed in the last four chapters.

In Chapter Three interference from the English verbal system on an

Anglophone's use of the French tense system was discussed. This was done by collecting student errors in the realm of tense and using Guillaumian theories to explain the reasons for the errors. At the level of the quasi-nominal mood different uses of the same form (say infinitive) was seen to be the source of interference, while in the indicative the main source of tense interference was the English aspect system.

In Chapter Four interference from the English modal auxiliaries on the use of the French verbal system was discussed. The modal auxiliaries are often used in English to express virtual events, this being done in French only by the subjunctive. The English modal auxiliaries are also used with a following infinitive to express the French future and conditional, thus being a source of interference. Another important source of interference from the English modal auxiliaries occurred with the past forms which have only one form in English but must each be translated by at least two in French. With some of the modals there was no evidence of interference since similar usage is to be found in French.

Chapter Five dealt with mood interference from English on learning the French system of moods. Perhaps a more exact thing to say is that interference from the English indicative mood on the uses of the French subjunctive mood was discussed. Here the main problem seemed to be the problem of <u>possibility/probability</u> which determines mood in French, but which does not seem to be of any concern in deciding use of mood in English.

In Chapter Six there was a short chapter dealing with English verbal interference on the learning and use of the French aspect system. Interference on learning the French aspect system was discussed at only two levels - quasi-nominal and indicative - since no evidence occurred to suggest that there might be interference in learning and using the aspect system in the subjunctive.

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