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IDENTIFIERS *Tense (Verbs)

# THE YUGOSLAV SERBO-CROATIAN - ENGLISH CONTRASTIVE PROJECT

Director: Professor Rudolf Filipović, Ph. D.

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## A. REPORTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Željko Bujas</td>
<td>Composition in Serbo-Croatian and English</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maja Dubravčić</td>
<td>The English Present Perfect Tense and Its Serbo-Croatian Equivalents</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gordana Gavrilović</td>
<td>Linking BE + Predicative Clause in English and Corresponding Structures in Serbo-Croatian</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omer Hadžiselimović</td>
<td>English Intransitive Verbs vs. Serbo-Croatian Reflexive Verbs</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Damir Kalogjera</td>
<td>Ten English Modals and Their Equivalents in Serbo-Croatian</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Damir Kalogjera</td>
<td>The Primary Auxiliaries BE, HAVE, DO, and Their Equivalents in Serbo-Croatian</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dora Maček</td>
<td>Relative Pronouns in English and Serbo-Croatian</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ljiljana Mihailović</td>
<td>Noun Phrases as Subject in English and Serbo-Croatian</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leonardo Spalatin</td>
<td>The Present Tense in English and Serbo-Croatian</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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*Edited by RUDOLF FILIPOVIĆ*

ZAGREB, 1970.

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CENTER FOR APPLIED LINGUISTICS
Washington, D.C., USA
The Yugoslav Serbo-Croatian - English Contrastive Project is an international venture involving the cooperation of Yugoslav and American scholars. Its primary aim is to facilitate the teaching of English as the second language to speakers of Serbo-Croatian. The results should also have relevance for the teaching of Serbo-Croatian to English speakers. It is further hoped that these results will afford new insight into the linguistic structures of the two languages and will constitute a contribution to contrastive linguistics.

The Project is directed by Rudolf Filipović, Professor of English and Director of the Institute of Linguistics of the Faculty of Philosophy, University of Zagreb, Yugoslavia, and coordinated by the Center for Applied Linguistics, Washington, D.C., U.S.A., represented by William Nemser, Director of the Center’s Foreign Language Program.

The Project is supported jointly by the governments of Yugoslavia and the United States, and by the Ford Foundation.

The results of the Project research are presented in three series:

A. Reports; B. Studies; C. Pedagogical Materials.
COMPOSITION IN SERBO-CROAT AND ENGLISH

A. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Compounding as a word-formation device is significantly less frequent in Serbo-Croat than in English. This is only natural in view of the positional function in Serbo-Croat syntax being nowhere near as important as its English counterpart (owing to the inflexional nature of Serbo-Croat).

1.2. As a result, many English compounds have simple (no-compound) translation equivalents in Serbo-Croat:

- make+up¹: šminka
- rain+bow: duga
- break+down: slok; kvar
- heart+rending: potresan
- etc.

1.21. Cases of complete — lexical and structural — componential correspondence (e.g. blood+thirsty : krvo+tedan) are extremely rare.

B. A BRIEF SURVEY OF STANDARD GRAMMATICAL STATEMENTS

I. Serbo-Croat Compounding Patterns

a. Two-Part Compounds

2.1. Nouns

2.11. Second Part Nominal

N + N duhan+kesa, šudo+tvorac, konjo+kradica, paro+brod, jugo+istok, kamenolom
### Second Part Verbal

| Vb(imp) + N | plači+drug, pamti+vljek, ispi+čutura, guli+koža |
| Adj + N    | bjelo+gorica, crven+perka |
| Num + N    | tro+medja, peto+školka |
| Adv + N    | rano+ranilac, skoro+teča |

#### 2.13. Second Part Verbal

| N + Vb(stem) | krvo+lok, puto+kaz |
| Adv + Vb(stem) | brzo+jav, pravo+pis |

#### 2.2. Adjectives

##### 2.21. Second Part Nominal

| Adj + N | crno+ok, golo+glav |
| N + N | zmijo+glav, kozo+nog |
| Num + N | dvo+glav, peto+krak |
| Vb(stem) + N | vrto+glav |

##### 2.22. Second Part Verbal

| Pron + Vb(p pres) | sve+znamući |
| Adv + Vb (p perf) | tako+zvani |

##### 2.23. Second Part Adjectival

| Adj + Adj | gluho+njem, star+mali, kulturno+historijski |
| Adv + Adj | tamno+ljubičast |

#### 2.3. Verbs

##### 2.31. Primary Compounds

1. Direct Compounding
   - dan+gubiti, blago+sloviti
   - slo+stavljati

2. Prefixal Compounding
   - pro+jocati, iz+govoriti
2.32. "Secondary" Compounds

1. Derived from compound nouns and adjectives
(дво um)+iti

2. Derived from prefixal compounds
(bes+poslič)+iti, (pri+će)+iti,
(pro+rok)+ovati

b. Three-Part Compounds

2.4. Nominal
(auto+moto)+trke, arc+(vuci+batina)

Adjectival
pseudo+(nad+realistički)

Adverbial
polu+(samo+hrano)

c. Repetition Compounds

2.5. Adjectives
kakav+takav

Adjectives/Adverbs
cik+cak

Adverbs
kako+tako, malo+malo

Onomatopoeias/Adverbs
tupa+lupa!, tuf+tuf!, klop+klop!

d. General Remarks

2.6. Most native Serbo-Croat (two-part) compound nouns and adjectives contain a "linking vowel": o and, in a few cases, i. This vowel should not be confused with the final o of the first component in the non-native (predominantly Greek and/or Latin) compounds, such as foto+amater, moto+kros, neuro+kirurg, etc.

II. English Compounding Patterns

a. Two-Part Compounds

2.8. Nouns

2.8.1. Second Part Nominal

N + N gold+smith, arm+chair, ink+stand^3
Adj + N    blackboard, hot-house
Pron + N   he-goat
Vb + N     draw-bridge, cut-throat, break-water
Adv + N    out-post, up-keep

2.82. Second Part Adverbial
N + Adv  looker-on, passer-by
Vb + Adv  break-down, make-up

2.83. Second Part Verbal
N + Vb   boot-black, chimney-sweep

2.9. Adjectives
N + Adj  blood-red, life-long, fool-proof
Adj + Adj bitter-sweet, Franco-German
Adv + Adj over-sensitive, under-done
Pron + Adj all-important, all-American

2.10. Compound Participles
2.10.1. Second Part: Past Participle
N + ed    machine-made, home-baked
Adj + ed  Yugoslav-grown, true-born
Adv + ed  far-fetched, well-meant, down-cast

2.10.2. Second Part: Present Participle
N + ing   heart-rending, sea-faring
Adj + ing easy-going, good-looking
Pron + ing self-denying, all-seeing
Adv + ing forth-coming, ever-lasting
2.11. Verbs

Adv + Vb  
out+live, over+look, under+sell, up+set

N + Vb (minus -er)  
house+hunt, lip+read

N + Vb (minus prep)  
sleep+walk, sun+bathe

b. String Compounds (Three-Part and Longer)

2.12. 1st and 2nd components are themselves a compound

(1) (hot+water)+bottle, (waste+paper)+basket

2nd and 3rd components are themselves a compound

(2) daddy+(long+legs)

Other types

penny+in+the+slot+machine,
first+come+first+served,
happy+go+lucky, forget+me+not,
out+of+work, maid+of+all+work

c. Repetition Compounds

2.13. Onomatopoeias

chug+chug, pooh+pooh, hush+hush

(function: interjections alternating as verbs, nouns and adjectives)

Other types

fiddle+faddle, walkie+talkie  (nouns)
wishy+washy, tip+top  (adjectives)
helter+skelter  (adverbs)
shilly+shally, hob+nob  (verbs)

d. General Remarks

2.14. English native compounds, unlike most of their Serbo-Croat counterparts, have no linking vowel. As to Greek and/or Latin-based compounds, they have an identical structure in either language (E tele+graph : SC tele+graf, E neuro+surgeon : SC neuro+kirurg). Native and Greek/Latin elements rarely occur in the same compound (E speedo+meter : SC strano+manat).
2.15. It may not be amiss to say a few words here about the stress patterns of English compounds. Since most of them have the stress on the first component — with the second half unstressed, or bearing a secondary stress — the Serbo-Croat learner tends to extend this to all English two-component compounds. His attention must, thus, be drawn at least to such largely reliable and comprehensive compound groups with a double stress as those with the adjective as the first element:

- Adj + Adj  red+hot
- Adj + ing  good+looking
- Adj + ed   bad+tempered
- Adj + N    first+class

C. CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

3.1. As easily observable, the deliberately simplified classification of both the English and the Serbo-Croat compounds in Part One of this report has been strictly based on an elementary formal (part-of-word) analysis of the components. This was done in preference to a predominantly semantic (cf. Zandvoort, §§ 907-930) or syntactic (cf. Brabec-Hrasteživković, pp. 146-149, 153-154, and Stevanović, pp. 237-242) classification.

3.2. The reason for this was the excessive complexity of both these classifications in terms of the learner’s needs. This often invoked bewildered groper should, realistically, be presumed as endowed with merely moderate analytical gifts. Thus, if he is expected to attempt any compound analysis as part of the learning method — doing this on an elementary formal, rather than semantic, basis ought not to overtax him.

3.3. This elementary formal analysis should be required from the learner only when it can be of some direct assistance in his uphill work to acquire the command of English, as the phrase goes. This can obviously be only
in the areas of systematic agreement/disagreement or overlap, where pattern-spotting brings the rewards of a triple discovery: a) of entirely new approaches, b) of unsuspected economies along the well-trodden avenues, and c) of the whys and whens behind typical learning errors (i.e., defining interference areas).

3.4. However, the building blocks used in the process of composition are independent words, that is, lexical (open-set) components. As such, they lend themselves (theoretically at least) to a myriad combinations, and are subject to considerably fewer restrictions than affixes— their counterparts in the area of derivation.

3.4.1. As a result, the translation equivalents of compounds—which we have to consult as the obvious raw material in contrastive analysis—are bound to provide us with fewer patterning clues.

3.5. Using what clues he was able to find, and following basically the same approach as in his report on derivation (i.e., translating ad hoc the examples listed by the grammars quoted, and consulting own files), the present author has classified the translation equivalents into four contrastive-patterning categories.

3.5.1. First Category

Serbo-Croat composition pattern has no single uniform correspondent in English:

a. Adj + N

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Serbo-Croat</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>slika + postajalnik</td>
<td>great power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>postajalnik</td>
<td>large/big estate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grad</td>
<td>big landowner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trgovac</td>
<td>big/big city, metropolis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sajam</td>
<td>(wholesale) merchant, wholesale trader/dealer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>industrijalac</td>
<td>(industrial) fair, big fair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>izdajnik</td>
<td>big industrialist, captain of industry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>izdajnik</td>
<td>high treason</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>izdajnik</td>
<td>one quality of high treason</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
b. Adv + Vb

\[
\begin{aligned}
\text{stavljati} & \Rightarrow \text{mal+}treat, \text{ill+treat, ill+use, abuse} \\
\text{rabiti} & \Rightarrow \text{abuse, mis+use, mis+appropriate} \\
\text{patiti se} & \Rightarrow \text{suffer (want), be hard up} \\
\text{pamtiti} & \Rightarrow \text{have a long memory, be vindictive}
\end{aligned}
\]

c. The following contrastive pattern, teetering between this and the next category, illustrates very well the difficulty of drawing clear-cut boundaries between members of these predominantly lexical categories. The several alternatives offered justify its inclusion here, but the high degree of collocability of the first two (if we disregard the others) make this pattern equally at home in the Second Category (admittedly, among the minor-exception cases).

\[
\text{nazovi/nadri + N} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l}
\text{pseudo} \\
\text{would-be} \\
\text{quack} \\
\text{self-styled} \\
\text{sham}
\end{array} \right. + N
\]

3.52. Second Category

Serbo-Croat composition pattern has a single uniform correspondent in English (a, b).

Patterns with minor — isolated or stylistic — exceptions (c, d, e) have also been listed here, since, for practical teaching purposes, these exceptions may be disregarded.

a. Adj + Noun base

\[
\begin{aligned}
\text{kratko+rog} & \Rightarrow \text{short+legged} \\
\text{dugo+kos} & \Rightarrow \text{long+haired} \\
\text{golo+glav} & \Rightarrow \text{bare+headed} \\
\text{plavo+ok} & \Rightarrow \text{blue+eyed}
\end{aligned}
\]
b. Num + *katnića* - Num + stor(e)l/floor + house/building
   četverokatnića - four-(Am. five-) stor(e)l/floor h/b

c. Adj + Adj
   smedje+siv - brown+grey; brown and grey
   kinesko+japanski - Chinese+Japanese
   (also: Sino+Japanese)
   kulturno+historijski - cultural+historical
   (also: cultural and historical)
   društveno+privredni - social+economic
   (also: social and economic socio+economic)

d. polu + N/Adj/Adv - half/semi + N/Adj/Adv
   polu+brat - half+brother
   polu+годишње - half+yearly, semi+annually
   polu+gol - half+naked
   polu+mjesec - half+moon (also: crescent)

But: polu+lat
   polu+kugla - hemi+sphere
   polu+otok - pentinsula
   polu+svijet - demi+monde

e. Num + godišњak/godišnji - Num + year + old
   osamnaest+godišњak - eighteen+year+old
   osamnaest+godišnji - eighteens+year+old
   šezdeset+godišњak - sixty+year+old
   (also: sexagenarian)
   sto+godišњak - hundred+year+old
   (also: centenarian)

3.53 Third Category

*English composition pattern has no single uniform correspondent in*

*Serbo-Croat:*

- ing + N
  \[ N + za + -dje \]
  \[ -ci + N \]
  \[ N \]
  \[ Adj + N \]

sleeping+bag - vreća za spavanje
knitting+needle  pletaciga
looking+glass (chiefly Brit)  igla za pletenje
swimming+bladder (Am. swim+bladder)  ogledalo

3.54. Fourth Category

English composition pattern has a Serbo-Croat correspondent, though
of different structure. There is, however, a non-obligatory variant
closer in structure to the English pattern.

Adj + kao + N
(Adj + Adj)  N + Adj
tvrd kao zeljezo  iron+hard
bijel kao snijeg  snow+white

D. TEACHING IMPLICATIONS

4.1. Whatever was said about the time level of useful application for
contrastive derivation patterns applies here, too. However, the minimum
limit of learning stage may have to be raised to higher-intermediate.

4.21. The learner can safely be expected to realise by himself, and early
in the game, the impossibility of mechanical synchronous (lexico-structural)
transfer in either direction (Lt → Ls or Ls → Lt). Thus, he soon "gets
wise" to such mistransfers as:

Lt → Ls  sea+sick : *more+bolan  (by analogy to
snow+blind : *snijeg+slijep

or

Ls → Lt  klio+bran : *rain+protector (by analogy to paro+brod : steam+
sunco+kret : *sun+turn
4.22. The learner is now on his guard. He knows that in only too many cases the only answer to the need to expand his compound vocabulary is in the strenuous memorising of lists.

4.23. At this stage, the textbook author may intervene by introducing specially designed translation exercises aimed at both underlining the areas of interference, and at pointing out the ways around them.

4.3. Needless to say, for these exercises to be adequately designed, lists of the higher-frequency composition patterns in either language likely to cause interference should be compiled. Extensive parallel texts (translations) are useful for the purpose. So are bilingual dictionaries and available concordances.

NOTES

1. The plus sign has been used throughout this report to indicate simply the division of compounds into their component parts. It is not meant to stand for any of the spelling conventions in compounding (hyphen, one word or separate words), which have been ignored so as not to detract from the uniformity of presentation of compound structure.

2. Already treated as a derivational process in this author's report on Derivation (cf. 1.12, 1.12.1, 2.73 c).

3. Patterns of the type leather coat, road traffic, Zagreb Fair, etc. (Attrib. N + N) will be treated elsewhere, as Conversion.

4. "Many of these formations", Zandvoort says (Hdbk, § 829), "do not fully agree with the definition of a compound ... because their elements are not used as separate words (film-flam), or because only one of them is (fiddle-faddle)."

5. Thus, in English compound adjectives of the N + Adj structure, six semantic types are distinguished, the first component denoting:
1. object (trust-worthy), 2. cause (sea-sick), 3. purpose (blood-thirsty).
4. resemblance (stone+cold), 5. measure/extent (knee+deep), or 6. restricting the meaning of the second component (water+proof).

Serbo-Croat, in its turn, distinguishes four syntactic inter-componential relations in primary verbal compounds: 1. attributive (staro+svatiti), 2. objective (dan+gubiti), 3. adverbial (blago+sloviti) and 4. copulative (svjetlo+mrcati).
THE ENGLISH PRESENT PERFECT TENSE AND ITS SERBO-CROATIAN EQUIVALENTS

1. Introductory Notes

1.1. One of the striking features of the present perfect tense is its seeming "evasiveness". It cannot be assigned to a single time sphere but combines both the past and the present. More emphasis may be laid on the "past-ness" or on the "present-ness", but both are invariably reflected in any present perfect form. Occasionally the time relations seem irrelevant but then it is some other feature of the action or process that is in focus and can be expressed only by the present perfect tense. One comes to the conclusion that an objective event occurring in a certain time sphere is not so important as the view of the event in the speaker's mind and the standpoint he adopts in referring to the event. In fact the semantic ingredients of the present perfect tense seem to be a combination of verbal context, situational context, the lexical verb and the form itself. They all signal the speaker's point of primary concern.  

1.2. The name "present perfect" seems inadequate since it might connote a contradiction. The word "present" implies that the present perfect should be considered as one of the present tenses. Yet it is most often used to describe events that occurred in the past. Thus in the sentence:

I've seen London,

the action itself is completed. The second part of the name, "perfect", means "finished", "completed". However, a typical example of the present
perfect:

I've lived here for the last twenty years. illustrates that the action is by no means completed. It still lasts at the moment of speaking and may even continue in the future.

However, in teaching English to Serbo-Croatian learners the term "present perfect" might even come in useful since it is suggestive of the double nature of the tense.

1.3 The complexity of the present perfect tense is enhanced for SC learners by the fact that there is no single corresponding tense in Serbo-Croatian. The SC tenses that most nearly correspond to the English present perfect are either a past tense called perfekt or a present tense called prezent.

1.3.1 The SC present does not signal any of the properties of the present perfect, i.e. it does not necessarily imply the connection between the past and the present time sphere which is foremost in the present perfect tense. It follows then that this feature should be expressed or implied in Serbo-Croatian by a combination of verbal form and various other means such as adverbials or context.

1.3.2 The present perfect tense is frequently confused with the SC perfekt, which is only one of its equivalents. The SC perfekt is used primarily to express an action belonging to the past time sphere, thus corresponding mainly to the E preterit. The confusion may stem from formal similarity, the accidental identity of the names, and occasional similarity in meaning.

1.4 As a result of all this the possibility of interference in the case of speakers of SC is considerable, which contributes to making the present perfect into one of the most challenging and painful items for teachers to tackle and a most difficult one for learners to grasp.
2. **Contrastive Analysis of the Present Perfect and Its Serbo-Croatian Equivalents**

2.1. A SC learner of English is confronted with a really difficult task when trying to master the present perfect tense. He has to deal with a tense which is paradoxically both present and past whereas his own language’s equivalents are either purely present or purely past. Consequently, he may end up confusing it either with a present or a past tense in English. The SC learner will readily say:

*I am here for three days.

instead of the correct:

(1) I have been here for three days.

or:

*I am studying English for three years.

instead of:

(2) I have been studying English for three years.

or:

*I have arrived five minutes ago.

instead of:

(3) I arrived five minutes ago.

or:

*The performance didn’t start yet.

instead of:

(4) The performance hasn’t started yet.

2.2. Since the present perfect tense frequently denotes an action occurring in the past, either immediate, or at some unspecified past time, it is necessary to find out whether there is a possibility of overlap between the present perfect and the preterit, i.e. whether they can ever be used interchangeably without any appreciable difference in meaning. Likewise, the present perfect frequently encroaches upon the territory of the present
tenses by expressing an action within the present time sphere. Therefore the area of the possible overlap between the present perfect and the present tenses should be determined.

2.3. In order to facilitate the analysis we shall set up two categories of the present perfect tense corresponding to the two most frequent uses of the tense. It does not really matter which names are given to the two subcategories as long as it is clear what they stand for. That is the reason why we have chosen the terms familiar to traditional grammar: the continuative and the resultative present perfect respectively.

2.3.1. The continuative present perfect is used to indicate an activity or state which takes place in a period of time beginning in the past and continuing right up to a point of present time. The period in question may begin anywhere in the past. The beginning of the period may, but need not, be specified. If mentioned the movement away from the starting point is expressed by since or some other adverbials which are well limited, such as all my life, all night, from the start. (5) I have worked here since January.

The continuative use of the present perfect simple does not necessarily imply that the action is completed. There need be no implication in the sense of non-continuation of the action at the present moment as the term "perfect" might wrongly suggest.

(6) My family has lived here since 1750.

(7) I have done this work now for a long time and I have fought since the start of the movement.

The action may even be expected to be going on in the future but that is beyond the point of the speaker's primary concern. In fact (5), (6), (7) are in a way ambiguous because there is nothing in them to suggest that the actions or states mentioned are either now ending or still continuing. However, a point of present time at which the action ends may be explicitly mentioned.

(8) Haven't I handled your affairs satisfactorily for you up to now?
2.3.2. The fact that the action or process extends from some time in the past to a point of present time is generally expressed by time adverbials rather than by the present perfect form alone.

(9) So far you have behaved all right.
(10) We’ve known each other for some considerable period of time.
(11) I’ve always wanted to go to the Italian lakes, and this is how it is.
(12) I have thought of you for the past two days.
(13) I never killed anybody in this war, and all my life I’ve wanted to kill a sergeant.

Occasionally an adverbial may be suppressed though it is implied.

(14) I’ve led a quiet life. (up to now)
(15) I’ve thought much. (all this time)

2.3.3. If the above examples of the continuative present perfect are considered in view of the possible overlap with the present or past tenses, the following tentative statements can be made:

The present perfect is absolutely obligatory in (1), (2), (5), (6), (7); it must not be replaced by one of the present tenses. In (3) the present perfect cannot be used instead of the preterit because the adverb ago denotes definitely past time.

Because of the meaning of the adverbials yet, up to now, so far, for the past two days there would be no ambiguity if the preterit were substituted for the perfect in (4), (8), (9) and (12) but the present perfect seems to be preferred by usage and the preterit might be considered as substandard.

In (13) the meaning would not be changed essentially because of the adverbial and the context, but the perfect is preferred as in this way the contrast between the two clauses is clearly emphasized. It is impossible to substitute the preterit for the perfect in (10), (14), and (15) because that would result in a change in meaning.
(10a) We knew each other for some considerable period of time. (One of the pair is dead; or they knew each other in a very remote past so that one of them has forgotten about it; or one of them does not want to admit they have known each other in which case the sentence is ironical)

(14a) I led a quiet life. (at some time in the past but not any longer)

(15a) I thought much. (at some time in the past)

in (11) it is possible to substitute the preterit for the present perfect with little or no change in meaning. This is probably because the present perfect form is used to express a state finished at the point now, whereas the reference to the present time (... and this is how it is) makes the sentence unambiguous.

(11a) I always wanted to go to the Italian lakes and this is how it is.

2.3.4. The SC equivalents of the continuative perfect seem to be the present of imperfective verbs and the perfekt of imperfective verbs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SC Equivalent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1SC) Ovdje sam (već) tri dana.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2SC) Učim engleski (već) tri godine.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5SC) Ovdje radim od stječnja.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6SC) Moja obitelj ovdje živl (već) od 1750.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7SC) Ovaj posao radim (već) dugo vremena i borim se od početka pokreta.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(10SC) Nas dvoje se (već) dosta dugo poznajemo.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(13SC) Nikad nisam nikoga ubio u ovom ratu ali čitav svoj život želim ubiti jednog narednika.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(14SC) Živim mirnim životom.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In all the above sentences the present moment is included and the SC equivalent is present of imperfective verbs. In the majority of cases the
adverbial već can be inserted though it does not strictly correspond to a single adverbial in English.

(8SC) Zar vam do sada nisam dobro vodio poslove?
(9SC) Dosad ti se dobro ponašao.
(11SC) Oduvijek sam željela doći na talijanska jezera, a sad evo kako je to.
(12SC) Mislio sam na tebe zadnjih dva dana.
(15SC) Mnogo sam razmišljao.

The SC perfekt of imperfective verbs is the equivalent of the continuative perfect in the above sentences. They are all concerned with an action or state continuing up to the point now but no further. The present moment does not seem to be included.

2.3.5. The resultative present perfect expresses an action which does not continue throughout the period of time extending from the past to the present moment or even on into the future. It is used to denote a completed occurrence in the past which is assumed to be connected with the present time through its results.

(16) I’ve changed my opinion.
(17) I’ve heard the story.
(18) I would be happy except for those people I have killed.
(19) I have come here from there.

Negative or "nil" results are also included:

(20) He hasn’t shown me any of them.
(21) Does that mean we’ve lost the taxi?

Logical conclusions based on some situation in the present and the speaker’s experience:

(22) What’s the time? My watch has stopped.

Accordingly, the action completed before now should in some way or
other (not necessarily in the results only) be relevant to the present situation.

The resultative perfect could, therefore, be said to cover all past occurrences which have a strong current relevance, either expressed or else implied.

(23) Except that you have been there and you know how it can be. (expressed)
(24) We've pinched their taxi. (implied)

2 3.6. If the resultative present perfect simple is used with time adverbials they are usually of a different kind from those used with the continuative present perfect. The adverbials denoting a period of time extending from the past up to a point of present time, such as since + a time expression, for + a time expression, all my life, all along, always are generally used with the continuative perfect, whereas the adverbials, which do not suggest an idea of "continuativeness", such as already, just, just now, once, twice, once or twice are usually associated with the resultative perfect.

(25) He's waited all these years. (continuative)
(26) He's just gone. (resultative)
(27) James has already noticed that. (resultative)

With today, this year, this past week, tonight the "resultativeness" can be clearly expressed whereas the "continuativeness" does not become quite clear unless the present perfect progressive is used. Compare:

(28) I've put on my new dress tonight. (resultative)
(29) I've worked very hard tonight. (continuative?)
(30) I've been reading your letter tonight. (continuative)
2.3.7. The preterit could readily be used instead of the resultative present perfect in (16), (17), (18), (19), (20), (21), (24), (26), (27), (28) with very little effect on the meaning.

In (22) and (23) the preterit would sound awkward because the results in both cases have been mentioned.

Likewise in (25) the preterit could affect the meaning considerably, or at least cause ambiguity.

(25a) He waited all these years. (but finally decided to get married)

In all the instances where both the preterit and the perfect could be used without affecting communication of causing ambiguity, the distinction seems to be stylistic or depending on usage. It is a question of whether the speaker looks upon the events as occurring in the past:

(28a) I put on my new dress tonight. (The action is completed), or whether he is concerned with the present effects of the events:

(28) I’ ve put on my new dress tonight. (I have my new dress on now)

There is another interesting thing which should be mentioned at this point:

British and American English appear to diverge quite considerably with respect to the use of the present perfect. Whereas the traditional distinctions still generally seem to hold good for the present-day British English, in American English the situation seems to be gradually changing. In certain situations seems to be gradually changing. In certain situations where the present perfect would have previously been absolutely required, the preterit can be used freely nowadays without creating ambiguity. It should be borne in mind, however, that in many of the examples where the preterit instead of the present perfect would be accepted in American English it would not
be tolerated in British English, either because of ambiguity, or simply because it would sound "odd" or substandard. Consequently, this is an additional difficulty in teaching the present perfect to SC, or any other foreign, learners. Naturally, the choice of the teaching strategy lies with teachers and textbook compilers but the best procedure seems to be to teach those uses of the present perfect first which are the same in both idioms and in which the present perfect is obligatory.

2.3.8. The SC equivalent of the resultative present perfect seems to be only perfekt, generally perfekt of perfective verbs.

(16 SC) Promijenio sam mišljenje.
(17 SC) (Već) sam čuo tu priču.
(18 SC) Bio bih ašten kad ne bi bilo onih ljudi koje sam pobio.
(19 SC) Otuda sam došao ovamo.
(20 SC) Nije mi pokazao ni jedne.
(21 SC) Znači li to da smo ostali bez taksija?
(22 SC) Koliko je sati? Stao mi je sat.
(23 SC) S tom razlikom da ste vi bili tamo i znate kako može biti.
(24 SC) Odmijeli smo im taksi.
(25 SC) On čeka sve ove godine. /continuative/
(26 SC) Upravo je otišao.
(27 SC) James je to već primijetio. 11
(28 SC) Večeras sam obukla novu haljinu.

The resultative present perfect with the element of current relevance is a most difficult tense for SC learners to master. On the one hand it invariably refers to an action completed in the past (either immediate or unspecified), on the other it is rarely accompanied by adverbials signalling current relevance. In addition, the SC equivalent is always perfekt, which is taught as corresponding to the English preterit. As a result the SC learners tend
to use the E preterit in the above and similar examples of the resultative present perfect. Fortunately, there will not be great harm done since, as was said before, the meaning is not greatly affected in the majority of cases.

2.4. The present perfect progressive shares all its basic properties with the present perfect simple. The opposition progressive/non-progressive could be summed up as a) incompletion/completion, and b) durative/neutral with respect to duration. One or both of these distinguishing features can be present at the same time.

(31) She's put on four pounds. (a completed action)
(32) Ever since I gave up smoking I've been putting on weight. (an incompleted action covering a period of time that began at some point in the past and has continued uninterruptedly up to now. It may continue in the future but that is beyond the speaker's primary concern)

2.4.1. The present perfect progressive does not imply that the activity continues throughout the relevant period of time, but merely that it has duration within the period, or that it is repeated within the period.

(33) Someone has stolen my books. (they are all gone)
(34) Someone has been stealing my books. (some of them are missing)

The first sentence expresses a completed action with definite results. The second sentence denotes an incomplete action that obviously did not last throughout the relevant period but was repeated an indefinite number of times. If the action does go on throughout the relevant period of time, it is mainly the adverbials, not the progressive form alone that show that the activity continued throughout.
24.2. The present perfect progressive does not invariably mean that an action or process continues up to the moment of speaking, i.e. it is not necessarily continuative. Thus sitting and resting at home we may say:

(37) I'm exhausted. I've been working all day.

Or in the story about Goldilocks and the three bears the baby bear complains:

(38) Someone has been sitting in my chair.
(39) Someone has been eating my porridge.

although Goldilocks has tried both the porridge and the chair and then gone upstairs to sleep sometime before the bears come home.

The sentences:

(40) She and I have been going together a good deal.
(41) Now let's come down to brass tacks. I've been making enquiries about you.
(42) When Tommy went back home that evening his mother saw the scratches on his face and the swollen nose, and said hopefully: "Have you been fighting?"

are good examples of the resultative perfect progressive.

2.4.3. The frequency of the present perfect progressive seems to be rather low. It appears to be a marked form, more emotional and emphatic than the simple form, used mostly in colloquial style for the sake of emotional colouring and emphasis. Moreover, it is frequently possible to substitute the simple form for the progressive form without much change in meaning.

The distinction seems to be aspectual. E.g.:

(43) He's visited me lately.
(44) Who's been visiting you lately?
The simple form can denote a single act whereas the progressive form expresses iterativeness.

2.4.4. In (32), (35), (44) the perfect progressive cannot be replaced either by the preterit simple or progressive, mainly because of the adverbials including the present moment. In (34), (36), (40) the preterit progressive would wrongly suggest a definite period in the past.

The preterit progressive can be used instead of the present perfect progressive in (34), (38), (39), (41), (42) without essentially distorting the meaning, though it changes the speaker’s angle of looking upon the events. When using the present perfect progressive the speaker insists on the present results of some past action, when using the past progressive he concentrates on the pastness of the action.

2.4.5. The SC equivalents of the present perfect progressive are both *prezent* and *perfekt*, duration being expressed by SC imperfective verbs, incompletion by SC *prezent* of imperfective verbs.

(32 SC) Otakad sam prestala pušiti stalno dobivam na težini.
(34 SC) Netko mi krade knjige.
(35 SC) Ti mi nanosiš bol čitavo vrijeme otkako smo u braku.
(36 SC) Na ovo čekam već godinama.
(37 SC) Iscrpljen sam. Čitav dan sam radio.
(38 SC) Netko je sjedio na mojoj stolici.
(39 SC) Netko mi je jgo kašu.
(40 SC) Ona i ja već dosta dugo hodamo.
(41 SC) Da predjemo na stvar. Ja sam se o vama raspitivao.
(42 SC) Kad se Tommy te večeri vratio kući, majka ugleda izgrebeno lice i natečeni nos i reče puna nade:

"Jesi li se tukao?"

(43 SC) On me je nedavno posjetio.
(44 SC) Tko vas je u zadnje vrijeme posjećivao?
2.5. As was shown in the course of this analysis, both the present perfect simple and progressive are frequently used with certain time adverbials and adverbial expressions. It seems advisable to deal with them separately because, on the one hand, they can serve as a useful teaching device, and on the other, just because they have been extensively used in teaching there are certain oversimplifications in their treatment. One of the well-known misconceptions is that there are time adverbials which always and invariably signal the present perfect tense. This is unfortunately not true as there is no time adverbial in English which would combine with a single tense only. However, there is a group of adverbials which are generally used with the present tenses (including the present perfect) but not with the past tenses. Moreover, owing to their meaning these adverbials are quite frequently associated with the present perfect. It should be a great help in teaching to point them out.

2.5.1. The adverbials and the adverbial expressions which, as a rule, do not combine with the past tenses are: **so far, up to now, yet, within the last + a time expression, **within the past + a time expression, **since this is the first time**...

   (45) Nothing has happened yet.
   (46) Whom else have you been talking to since I saw you?
   (47) "Oh, the way I've spent my life so far" - said Luks.
   (48) Has he been making a fool of himself lately?
   (49) This is the first time I've been invited to the party.
   (50) I've done so much work within the last few days.

2.5.1.1. The SC equivalents are **perfekt of imperfective and perfective verbs** or **przest of imperfective verbs.**
The stress should be laid on the SC adverbials which in SC as well as in English express a period of time up to the present moment (or in the case of još they include the present moment).

2.5.2. All the time adverbials which will be discussed from now on readily combine with the present, past, and future tenses. But since the present analysis is concerned with the present/past time opposition, the use of the adverbials will be discussed only in this connection.

The adverbial now is abundantly used both with the present perfect and the present tenses, but it can occasionally even be found with the preterit.

(51) I've had enough of it now.
(52) Now I have forgotten what I was going to say.
(53) What's he studying now? Is he studying science?
(54) The telephone works well now.
(55) "Of course I haven't forgotten! It's your birthday.
    "You just thought of it now!"

2.5.2.1. The SC equivalents are either present or perfekt.

(51 SC) Sad mi je toga dosta.

The mixture of "pastness" and "presentness" in (51) is completely absent from the SC equivalent because it is neither comprised in the adverb sada nor in the verbal form. Under the influence of the source language construction the SC learner will tend to say, I have enough of it now., which is possible but not the same as (51).

(52 SC) Sad sam zaboravio što sam htio reći.
2.5.3. The adverbials beginning with for are generally associated with the present perfect tenses, although they can also be used freely with the past tenses.

(56) I have not seen you for ages.
(57) She has been sitting there for two hours doing nothing.

The use of the preterit usually results in a difference in meaning.

(58) It rained for three days.

The statement suggests that it is not raining any longer. In fact the action could have taken place in quite a remote past. The present perfect instead of the preterit in (58) would suggest that it started raining three days ago and that it is still raining or it has just stopped.

However, since the adverbials of this kind denote duration, the restrictions on their use are not purely temporal.

2.5.3.1. The SC equivalent of the for + adverbial expression is usually present but perfekt is also possible. However it is the SC adverb već that serves as a signal in this case.

(56 SC) Nisam te vidjela već sto godina. (već jako dugo)
(57 SC) Tu već sjedi dva sata i ništa ne radi.

2.5.4. Similarly the interrogative adverbial how long is used with the present perfect tense when the action is related with the present time, with the past tense when such relation does not exist.

(59) How long have you known her? (up to now)
(60) How long did you know her? (at some time in the past but not at the present moment. She might be dead)
(61) For how long haven’t you seen her?

2.5.4.1. The SC equivalents of how long + present perfect in English is prezent and less frequently perfekt. The equivalent of how long + preterit is always perfekt.
Due to the source language interference the SC learners will tend to say: "How long do you know her?" which is incorrect.

2.5.5. The adverbials always, ever, never, combine both with the present perfect and preterit. Leaving apart the instances where the preterit clearly refers to the past time sphere such as:

(62) When he was at the seaside last year he never went swimming.,

there seem to be a large number of cases, especially in American English, in which the present perfect and preterit can be used interchangeably with no difference in meaning.

(63) Have you ever seen something like this?
(63a) Did you ever see something like this?
(64) It's never bothered me.
(64a) It never bothered me.

However, there is always a potential difference, which, when conditioned by the situation or context, becomes obvious. E.g.

(65) She always wore a dark blue dress with a white collar., in a proper context implies either that she is dead now or else that we are speaking of a definite past period. 16

2.5.5.1. In Serbo-Croatian perfekt is the only equivalent.

(63+63a SC) Jesi li ikada vidio nešto slično?
(64+64a SC) To me nikad nije uznemiravalo.

The interference of the SC construction cannot do much harm here, because, apart from a few cases, the perfect and the past tense can be used indiscriminately with the above adverbials.
2.5.6. The present perfect tense in combination with the adverbial just expresses an action completed in the immediate past. Just is used with the preterit with no apparent difference in meaning.

(66) My sister has just been telling me about you.
(67) Did you see anything of rummy professor round here? - He just went out.

At this point again there seems to be a difference in usage between British and American English. In British English just is practically restricted to the present perfect whereas its use with the preterit appears to be frequent in American English.

2.5.6.1. SC perfekt is the only equivalent of just + present perfect, as just really denotes past time.

(66 SC) Sestra mi je upravo o vama govorila.
(67 SC)Jeste li nedjelje u blizini vidjeli nekog šašavog profesora? - Upravo je izašao.

The tendency on the part of the SC learners to use the preterit all the time will not cause great harm in this case either.

2.5.7. With such adverbial expressions as today, tonight, this week, this year the distinction seems to be based on the time at which the utterance is being made. If it is made within the period of time in question the present perfect should be used, if the relevant period is over when the utterance is made the past tense should be used.

(68) I've bought two dozen eggs this morning. (it is still morning)
(69) I met Mr. Brown this morning. (it is afternoon or evening)

However this distinction does not always hold, so that the perfect and preterit seem to be used indiscriminately with no difference in meaning when the
utterance is made within the relevant period of time.

(70) I’ve been here tonight.
(71) I was here tonight.

British and American usage appear to differ here too. British English prefers the traditional distinctions which are gradually being abolished by American English.

2.5.7.1. In Serbo-Croatian perfekt is used indiscriminately.

(68 SC) Jutros sam kupio dva tuceta jaja.
(69 SC) Jutros sam srela g. Browna.

(70+71 SC) Večeras sam bio ovdje.

The tendency of SC learners to disregard the distinction observed by very careful speakers is not of much consequence in this case.

2.5.8. Adverbials such as recently, already, before, and the adverbials of frequency often, frequently, seldom are used both with the perfect and preterit their use being indicated by the context.

(72) We haven’t seen any of you recently. (up to now)
(73) Did you hear anything from Marigold recently? - Not for some years.
(74) I’ve often meant to drop you a line.

2.5.8.1. Perfekt is once again the only verbal equivalent used in Serbo-Croatian.

(72 SC) U posljednje vrijeme nismo vidjeli nikoga od vas.
(73 SC) Je li vam se Marigold javljala u posljednje vrijeme? - Ne, nije već nekoliko godina.
(74 SC) Često sam ti se htio javiti.

The SC learners will tend to use the preterit invariably. These and similar instances where a SC construction is used as an equivalent of two semantically different English structures are most difficult for the speakers.
of SC to grasp.

2.5.9. A large number of time adverbials combine equally freely with the present perfect simple and progressive. They are, to mention only a few, today, tonight, this year, this past week, always, lately, recently. E.g., compare:

(30) I've been reading your letter tonight.
(28) I've put on my new dress tonight.

On the other hand, the adverbials which are usually associated only with the resultative perfect simple, such as never, ever, once, twice, once or twice, just, just now, already, are hardly ever used with the perfect progressive. The adverbials denoting an uninterrupted period of time, such as since + a time expression, for + a time expression, in my life, all this time, all day long seem to be more frequently used with the present perfect progressive than with the present perfect simple.

(75) She was the nicest girl I've ever seen in my life.
(76) What have you been doing for the last few weeks?

2.6. In Serbo-Croatian there is a difference in the verbal aspect.

(30 SC) Večeras sam čitala tvoje pismo. (Imperfective)
(75 SC) Ona je bila najzgodnija djevojka koju sam u životu vidio. (Perfective)
(76 SC) Što ste radili ovih zadnjih nekoliko tjedana? (Imperfective)

2.6. Both the present perfect simple and progressive are used in subordinate clauses:

Object clause:

(77) They might think that we've quarreled.
(78) I've been told that you've been having a bit of trouble.
Attributive clause:
(79) That’s the most beautiful sunset I’ve ever seen.
(80) This is the place I’ve been telling you about.

Adverbial clause of comparison:
(81) You’ve done more work than we have.
(82) After all he has been practicing more than I have.

Conditional clause:
(83) He’ll certainly come to the meeting if he’s arrived.
(84) If he has been telling lies why don’t you have it out with him.

Adverbial clause of time:
(85) I’ve never looked at any woman except Myra since I’ve been married.
(86) We’ve had no trouble since I’ve been working here.

2.6.1. The SC equivalents are either present or perfect.

(77 SC) Mogli bi pomisliti da smo se posVLili.
(78 SC) Čujem da imate nepriliku.
(79 SC) To je najljepší zapad sunca koji sam ikad vidio.
(80 SC) Ovo je mjesto o kojem sam ti govorio.
(81 SC) Vi ste napravili više posla nego mi.
(82 SC) Konadno on vježba više nego ja.
(83 SC) Sigurno će doći na sastanak ako je stigao.
(84 SC) Ako laže zašto to ne rasčistiš s njim.
(85 SC) Niskad nisam pogledao nijednu ženu osim Myre otkako smo u braku.
(86 SC) Nismo imali neprilika otkako ovdje radimo.

The SC equivalents rarely comprise the meaning of “pastness and presentness” which is so characteristic of the English present perfect. That is why the interference of the source language construction will cause the SC learners to say:

(78 b) I’m told that you are having a bit of trouble.
(82 b) After all he practices more than I do.
34

(84 b) If he is telling lies why don’t you have it out with him.

(78 B), (82 B) and (84 B) are correct but different from (78), (82) and (84).

Since this difference is not at all reflected in Serbo-Croatian, this is one of the more intricate uses of the present perfect for the SC learners to master. Fortunately it is not a very important use and the interference does not cause a very serious error.

2.6.2 The present perfect simple is used to refer to the future time sphere in time clauses introduced by after, before, as soon as, until, when.

(87) I’ll give you my decision after I’ve discussed the matter with my family.

(88) Have some more whisky when you’ve finished that, but don’t let Jim get at it.

(89) I’ll call you as soon as I’ve finished.

In the above sentences the present perfect is used to denote an obvious future action. There is an overlap here between the perfect tense and the present, which is often substituted for the perfect in time clauses of this type even though the meaning is slightly different.

The difference is again in the way the speaker looks upon the action in the time clause. If he thinks of it as merely taking place in the future time period he will use the present when referring to it.

(89 B) I’ll call you as soon as I finish.

If, on the other hand, he pictures the action as finished at some time in the future he will use the present perfect.

(89) I’ll call you as soon as I’ve finished.
2.6.2.1. As might be expected in Serbo-Croatian prezent of perfective verbs is used as an equivalent of the English present perfect in this type of construction.

(87SC) Reći ću vam svoju odluku nakon što porazgovorim sa svojom obitelji.
(88SC) Kad popijete taj viski uzmite još, ali pazite da ga se Jim ne dočepa.
(89SC) Zvat ću vas Jim završim.

The tendency of the SC learners to use the present tense invariably is harmless in this particular case.

3. Conclusion

3.1. However intricate and complex the subject of the present perfect tense and its use might be for the speakers of Serbo-Croatian, certain recurring regularities worth noting have emerged in the course of this analysis.

3.2. The Serbo-Croatian equivalents of the continuative perfect are prezent and perfekt of imperfective verbs, the equivalent of the resultative perfect is generally perfekt of perfective verbs.

3.3. The present perfect tense can in a number of its standard uses be replaced by the preterit. This tendency is particularly pronounced in American English. In the majority of such cases the use of the preterit instead of the present perfect does not cause ambiguity or any considerable difference in meaning because of the existence of other signals such as adverbials and context which make the meaning clear. The SC equivalent in all such cases seems to be perfekt which will result in a tendency on the part of SC learners to use the preterit. Thus, in this particular field of usage the damage which can be caused by the interference of the source language construction is not great.
However, the frequent occurrence of the SC *perfekt* as an equivalent of the Eng’ *present perfect* might lead to the erroneous identification of the two tenses in all their various features of meaning and usage. This, in turn, might cause the wrong use of the present perfect in such situations or contexts where the SC *perfekt* refers to the past time sphere.

3.4. Likewise the present perfect can be replaced by the present tense in time clauses when it is used to express a future action. There is only a slight difference in meaning. In all such cases the SC equivalent is *present*. Consequently, the interference is harmless.

3.5. The use of the present perfect is obligatory when it expresses an activity or state happening in a time period extending from the past up to the present including the present moment. The present perfect is then usually accompanied by the adverbials which are very frequently associated with the present perfect. Apparently in all such cases the SC equivalent is *present* + corresponding adverbials. The interference of the source language may cause the learners to use the English present tense which is incorrect and should be prevented by careful teaching.

3.6. There is a group of adverbials and adverbial expressions which do not seem to collocate with the past tenses and are most frequently used with the present perfect. They and their SC equivalents should be used as helpful signals in teaching the present perfect to the speakers of Serbo-Croatian.

3.7. There still remain a large number of uses of the present perfect tense with or without adverbials in which the substitution of any other tense would result in a different meaning. In the majority of such cases in SC equivalents there does not seem to be anything to suggest the use of the present perfect in English. On the contrary, there is usually a very strong interference from source language constructions, leading to bad usage. These are the cases
that teaching ought to concentrate on.

4. Pedagogical Implications

4.1. The present perfect tense should not be taught extensively at the early stages of learning, at least not before the learners have thoroughly mastered the preterit. Occasional examples should be treated as phrases, lexically.

4.2. The present perfect progressive could be neglected, i.e. only treated lexically, at the early stages of learning. There is a danger of SC learners using the present perfect progressive every time the present of imperfective verbs in Serbo-Croatian suggests the use of the perfect tense in English. This is wrong because the SC present of imperfective verbs also stands for the continuative present perfect simple. Later, at the more advanced levels, the aspectual differences between the present perfect simple and progressive should be gradually introduced, comparison with Serbo-Croatian might be found helpful.

4.3. SC learners should first be taught when not to use the present perfect tense because this gives them something to rely upon in this tangle. They should be taught the adverbials which are mainly used with the preterit, those denoting a definite past time, such as ago, last year, yesterday, in + the name of a month, on + a date, on + the name of a day, when as an interrogative.

A comprehensive list of these adverbials and adverbial expressions should be compiled and drilled in combination with the preterit. They could be practiced by means of substitution tables, questions and answers, simple short conversations or narratives about actual events in the past and in various other ways.

4.4. The learners should be discouraged from associating the SC perfekt with the English perfect as its correspondent. They might be led into doing
that by the word-for-word formal similarity between the SC perfekt and the English present perfect (auxiliary + participle). To prevent this the English preterit should be taught first and associated with a definite past period. This, in turn, will lead the SC learners to associate the preterit with the SC perfekt whose main use is to denote past time. At more advanced stages of learning certain features of usage (3.3.) may cause this confusion to recur. In order to forestall the error a large number of unambiguous and contextualized exercises should be provided both with the present perfect and preterit and the use of the two tenses should be analyzed and compared.

4.5. When actual teaching of the present perfect is started, it should concentrate on the obligatory uses of the present perfect. Since in this particular case there is a danger of interference from the SC prezent tense, the elementary drills should all be constructed with the adverbials which most frequently accompany the present perfect in this feature of its use. At more advanced levels it might be useful to point out the ideas and concepts for whose expression a native speaker of English would use the present perfect. It could also be mentioned that because of the absence of the means to express such ideas in Serbo-Croatian the speakers of Serbo-Croatian tend to use either present or preterit in English, since in Serbo-Croatian prezent and perfekt are the two most frequent equivalents of the English present perfect.

4.6. Only later, when the elementary use has been mastered should more complex uses be introduced. After imitation and repetition, drills with substitution tables, questions and answers with the present perfect tense, a series of exercises should be compiled in which the perfect tense and the past tense could be practiced in parallel. (One type could consist of questions with the present perfect tense, the first answer in the present perfect, the
second in the past tense giving a definite point of past time. E. g. Have you written to him? Yes, I have. I wrote yesterday.) It is most important for all such exercises to be unambiguous and to have enough context to trigger off the use of the right tense in the learners’ minds.

4.7. At more advanced stages the SC adverbial equivalents of the English adverbials used with the present perfect might be pointed out. Translation exercises might even be introduced, both from SC into English and vice versa, with special attention being paid to the adverbials signalling the use of the present perfect. (E. g. već, otako + a time expression/clause)

Another exercise should consist of questions with how long...? and answers to them; still another of a substitution table with within the last/past..., or it’s the first time.... There should also be an exercise consisting of questions with how many times...? and answers containing once, twice, three times, once or twice.

4.8. Still later attention should be directed to the more intricate differences in meaning between the constructions with the present perfect and the preterit. The exercises and drills should be constructed in such a way as to bring out the difference in meaning. The way such distinctions are expressed in Serbo-Croatian, or their absence might be pointed out to advanced learners. It might also be useful at this stage to analyze and discuss the actual usage of native speakers.

4.9. The present perfect tense is a tense that takes a long time and much patience to master. Only after constant and repeated practice can we hope to develop something of a "feel" for the present perfect tense.
NOTES

1. Some linguists use the term tense only for the forms which are morphologically marked, such as the present simple and preterit. There are, indeed, a number of alternative, perhaps more suitable "names" for the present perfect. Joos (The English Verb, 1964) uses the term phase for the English perfect; for Allen (The Verb System of Present-Day American English, 1966) the label verb-cluster is used of any verb group consisting of a verb form and one or more preceding auxiliaries. B. Strang (Modern English Structure, 1962) e.g. uses the term finite verb-phrase.

Notwithstanding the unsuitability of the term tense as applied to the English present perfect, we have decided to use it in this analysis for the simple reason of avoiding confusion since it has been agreed to rely as much as possible upon traditional terminology in reports of this type.

2. The properties of the present perfect tense have led some linguists, both British and American, to assign it to the category of aspect rather than tense proper, in the sense that aspect "indicates the manner in which the action denoted by the verb is considered as being carried out." (B. Strang, Modern English Structure, p. 143)

M. Ridjanović, in his dissertation "A Synchronic Study of Verbal Aspect in English and Serbo-Croatian", discusses the possibility of the English present perfect being an aspectual category and comes to the conclusion "that the English perfect cannot be considered an aspectual category in its own right." (pp. 42-43)

3. According to Brabec-Hraste-Živković, Gramatika hrvatsko-srpskog jezika, 1952, p. 249 the SC perfekt can also be used to express an action in the past having results in the present. This is the so called prezenski perfekt whose name in E translation equates to present perfect. The following sentence from Brabec-Hraste-Živković, Jedno mjesto u zalivu nije Risna, gdje su gore a obje strane zaliv vrlo stijesnile, zove se Verige.

4i
gives in English:

A place in the bay below Risan, where the bay is squeezed very tightly by the mountains on both sides, is called Verlge.

The real English equivalent of this *perfekt* is the present. In addition, this use of the SC *perfekt* is only marginal and is restricted to the cases where a present state is being described.

However, there is another more relevant possibility of current relevance being expressed by the SC *perfekt*, in the same way as it can be expressed by the English resultative perfect.

E.g.

Stao mi jë sat. - My watch has stopped.
Još ga nism vido. - I have not seen him yet.

This correspondence could be a help in teaching, but at the same time one must beware of the dangers that such “thin” correspondences present for the learner, who is only too eager to generalize.

4. English examples have been numbered. The SC equivalents are marked by the same number as the corresponding E sentences with the addition of *SC*. The sentences marked *a* are in the preterit and are used for comparison with identical sentences in the perfect. The sentences marked *b* are in the present tense and are used for comparison with identical sentences containing the present perfect tense. The sentences marked with an asterisk are incorrect.

5. The present perfect does not seem to be completely impossible in combination with *long ago*.

E.g. It’s a wonder they haven’t found that out long ago.

This use, however, is marginal and should be neglected in teaching.

6. The SC *perfekt* would not affect the meaning very much here because of the adverbial.

7. SC learners will invariably use present progressive in rendering this and similar sentences into English. That is why it might be advisable to avoid such instances without signals at the early stages of teaching. When presented they should always be contextualized since context is the only possible signal in these cases.
8. It might be interesting to mention at this point that it was very difficult to compile a body of purely continuative and purely resultative examples of the present perfect. The present perfect accompanied by the appropriate adverbial can be clearly continuative.

(6) My family has lived here since 1750.

But as soon as the adverbial is removed the "continuativness" is blunted and the "resultativness" comes to the fore.

My family has lived here.

can be considered as resultative. My family does not live here now but they have left visible traces, or they remember the place.

If the situation is reversed this change of reference also works.

E. g. I've studied in London. (resultative)

I've studied in London all these years. (continuative)

The above observations in fact tend to point out that the categories of the continuative and resultative present perfect are not at all so clearly separated as they are usually made to appear. On the contrary there is an imperceptible gradation from clearly continuative to clearly resultative uses with a large area of uncertainty.

Corresponding adverbials are often resorted to in order to make the meaning either clearly continuative or clearly resultative.

There also seems to be another feature which plays a role in this respect. It is the lexical content of the verb itself, by which we mean those components of meaning which correspond to "imperfectiveness", "perfectiveness" and "iterativeness" when speaking of SC verbs. This aspectual feature of the English verb, the way it is manifested in the present perfect simple and progressive, and the connection, if any, with the SC aspectual categories might be worth analyzing, but are beyond the scope of the present paper.

9. Some linguists object to this explanation traditionally attached to the resultative present perfect, as it is rather vague and far-fetched to explain sentences such as (16), (20) and many others in terms of results.
However although we agree that the classification continuative/resultative is a rather poor pragmatic device to cover obvious semantic differences (as shown in note 8 above) we have decided to keep it at the present stage of research since it has proved to be a useful teaching device.

10. It would be worth while probing into this matter more deeply and finding out how far the usage varies in the two idioms and on which points they diverge most.

11. This ‹ved› is different from ‹ved› in (1SC), (2SC), (6SC), etc. In (27SC) it is the equivalent of the adverb ‹already› whereas in (1SC), (2SC), (6SC) etc. it is strictly speaking, no equivalent of any particular word of phrase but it may be inserted in SC equivalents of English sentences containing since + a time expression, or for + a time expression to emphasize the continuity of the time period. It should be made clear in teaching that every ‹ved› in Serbo-Croatian need not have ‹already› as an equivalent in English.

Likewise a confusion in the use of the adverbials ‹yet› and ‹still› can easily crop up since they both can have SC ‹Još› as their equivalent. However ‹still› is only rarely used with the present perfect. This should be pointed out in teaching in addition to special features of the use of both adverbials.

12. The resultative perfect simple and progressive differ aspectually. The action or process expressed by the resultative perfect progressive, although completed before the point now, has duration or is repeated in the period extending from the past up to the present moment. Like the resultative perfect simple it has strong current relevance.

13. The present perfect and particularly the present perfect progressive seem to be almost entirely restricted to the conversational style. This hypothesis has been recently attested by two counts, which although small-scale and not very comprehensive, are still quite persuasive on this point. (Report on a Verb-Form Frequency Count, 1963; S. Vojvoda, Prilog problemu prevodjenja srpskohrvatskog perfekta na engleski jezik, Godišnjak Pedagoške akademije u Nikšiću, 1, 1969.)
Of the two, the progressive is much rarer. According to the "Report on a Verb-Form Frequency Count", 1963, the frequency of the present perfect progressive is 0.07% compared with 1.82% for the present perfect simple. The count was undertaken on 108,783 verb forms.

14. This is only one of the possible equivalents of (49). The others are:

Ovo je prvi put da me zovu na zabavu.
Ovo je prvi put da sam pozvana na zabavu.

There is no appreciable difference in meaning among the three SC variants.

15. In this case for does not convey the meaning which it has in the following sentence:

How long did he come here for? He came for three years.

The SC equivalent of this for is na or za:

Na kako dugo je došao ovdje? Na tri godine.

We should beware of the confusion in teaching.

16. British English still seems to be more careful and "pedantic" with respect to the use of these adverbials with the perfect or preterit. If it is necessary to express the idea of "presentness" or current relevance the present perfect is generally used in British English even though the use of the preterit would not create ambiguity.

17. In this particular pattern, i.e., when a relative clause including ever follows a superlative both the present perfect simple and the preterit can be used without change in meaning. Thus we can say:

(79a) That's the most beautiful sunset I ever saw.

With any other time indicator in the construction only the present perfect should be used.

E.g. This is the best book I've read in years.

18. Futur II is also possible but not usual.
19. Examples of the present perfect, both simple and progressive, will necessarily occur very early if the teaching method is based on present-day colloquial English and the approach is oral. It is almost impossible to make up a natural conversation or dialogue, however simple, without having to resort at least once to the present perfect.

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1. This paper will consider the E structures and their SC translation equivalents in which linking be is followed by a clause functioning as the nominal part of the predicate. Three main types of clauses that occur as predicatives are: 1. that clauses, 2. as clauses, and 3. question word clauses (a. dependent interrogative clauses, b. reduced relative clauses).

   (1) The fact is that he is not mature enough.
   Činjenica je da nije dovoljno zreo.

   (2) Everything is as it should be.
   Sve je kao što treba.

   (3a) The question is whether he was right.
   Pitanje je da li je bio u pravu.

   (3b) This is where he lives.

2. The subject of the sentence containing a predicate clause is either a (pro)noun (usually nouns such as fact, thing, question, problem, concern, etc.), a noun group, a noun clause, or most frequently a demonstrative, here, this or that. A question word clause is introduced by how, what, where, who, when, and if or whether.

3. Clauses introduced by "that":

   (4) The trouble is that he does not understand us.
   Nevolja je [u tome] što nas on ne razumije.

   (5) The problem is that he does not work.
   Problem je [u tome] što on ne radi.
(6) The thing is that he will not come.
Stvar je u tome što on neće doći.

The difference between the E and SC constructions may cause some trouble to the SC learner of E. The use of the SC correlative group taj, ta, or u tome što varies to a certain degree and depends on the subject of the sentence. Nevoljë and problem can take any of the possible combinations and the use of taj, ta, to, or u tome is non-obligatory. We can very well say, "Nevoljë je što nas on ne razumije", whereas stvar demands u tome što unconditionally. To overcome this problem the SC learner of E should neglect the first part of the correlative group i.e. taj, ta, to and u tome and express only što as that.

4. In some cases we can find a uniform possibility of omission of the first part of the correlative group.

(6) The problem is how he will console her.
Problem je (u tome) kako će on utješiti.

(7) The problem is when he will finish his work.
Problem je (u tome) kada će on završiti svoj posao.

(8) The problem is where he will find her.
Problem je (u tome) gdje će je on naći.

(9) Her problem is who will help her.
Njen problem je (u tome) ko će joj pomoći.

4. Clauses introduced by "what": E what: SC ono što

(10) Character is what we are.
Karakter je ono što smo.

(11) Her dreams are what she does not remember any more.
Njeni snovi su ono čega se ona više ne sjeća.

(12) Failures are what we least hope.
Neuspjesi su ono čemu se najmanje nadamo.

(13) Her main interest is what is usually no concern of hers.
Najviše je zanima ono što je se obično ne tiče.
(14) His main point is what we discussed yesterday.
Njegova glavna misao je ono o čemu smo jučer raspravljali.

(15) His latest book is what he is really proud of.
Njegova posljednja knjiga je ono čime se on zaista ponosi.

The SC speaker of E is likely to transfer SC ono što, čega, čemu, što, o čemu or čime into E that what. To avoid this the learner should express only the second part of the correlative group and bear in mind that whatever its form in SC, the E counterpart is what. Because of the striking difference in form between the nominative and accusative što and the oblique cases čega, čemu etc., many learners may miss the paradigmatic connection between što and its other case forms. Once they are made to realise this connection they will have less trouble expressing čega, čemu, etc. as what.

The E learner of SC may have more difficulties with the SC correlative groups as they vary in form and their cases depend on the finite verb of the predicate clause.

One of the uses of the predicate clauses introduced by what is that of placing emphasis on a part of the sentence.

The emphatic variant of: He wants this. On hoće ovo.

is: This is what he wants. Ovo on hoće.

In SC this is achieved by a change of word order.

5. **Clauses introduced by "how"**:

(16) The question is how he explains it.
Pitanje je kako on objašnjava.

(17) The question is how often he visits her.
Pitanje je kako je on često posjećuje.
As is seen from these examples there will not be any difficulties for the SC learner of E. But when the E sentence is introduced by this, that or here, this kind of construction may be quite a problem for the learner of E.

(18) This is how he describes it.
Evo kako on to opisuje. or: On to opisuje ovako.

(19) That is how he imagined it.
Eto kako je on to zamišljao. or: On je to tako zamišljao.

(20) Here is how he did it.
Evo kako je on to uradio. or: On je to ovako uradio.

Since evo, eto are frequently used in SC, attention should be given to this particular rendering of these words with enough practice to bring home to the learners the relationship of evo, eto to this is..., that is..., here is... When the E sentence is introduced by this, that or here, then its SC counterpart is evo, eto or evo, or the construction "verb"+ovako, tako.

If we put the sentence introduced by this, that or here + what clause into the negative or interrogative form, we get the correlative group on st to in SC.

(21) This is what he is looking for.
Evo što on traži. or: To je ono što on traži.

(22) This is not what he is looking for.
To nije ono što on traži. or: To nije što on traži.

(23) Is this what he is looking for?
Je li to ono što on traži? or: Je li to što on traži?
6. Clauses introduced by "why":

(24) That is why I left early.  
Eto zašto sam rano krenuo. or: Zato sam rano krenuo.

Clauses introduced by "where":

(25) This is where he works.  
Evo gdje on radi. or: Ovdje on radi.

The usual mistake that the SC learner of E makes is that in using a dependent interrogative clause the learner will very likely use the same inversion in the E construction as he uses in its SC counterpart. Thus, the word order in the dependent clause will be the same as that of the interrogative sentence. Difficulties are very likely since SC does not distinguish the main clause question order from the dependent clause question order, either by order or by any other marker, and since the main-clause question order is usually taught before the dependent-clause question order.

(26) Samo misli na to kada će idi kući.  
*The only thing he thinks about is when will he go home.  
Instead of:  
The only thing he thinks about is when he will go home.

The learner should be made to assimilate this important grammatical feature of E which is opposed to SC through a long series of carefully planned exercises.

Another difficulty for the SC learner of E is presented by sequence of tenses in predicate clauses in relation to the main clause. As this forms part of a special topic under the present Project, we will not concern ourselves with it in this paper.
NOTE

1. According to Lees (The Grammar of English Nominalizations, Mouton, The Hague 1988, p. 90) the clause "where he lives" comes from the relative clause modifying an understood noun, in this case "place".
This paper is concerned with some features of correspondence between E intransitive verbs and SC reflexive verbs, since this relationship seems to cause some difficulty to SC learners of E. We will be dealing with intransitive uses of ordinarily transitive verbs as well as with 'pure intransitives', i.e. verbs that cannot have a direct object, such as appear, fall, go, rise, etc.

1. A great many verbs that are intransitive or used intransitively in E have reflexive verbs as equivalents in SC:

   (1) The children are playing in the park.
       Djeca se igraju u parku.

   (2) The door suddenly opened and the teacher entered.
       Vrata su se iznenada otvorila i nastavnik je ušao.

   (3) Cheekbone and jaw showed in hard outline.
       Jagodica i vile se ukazaše u oštrom obrisu.

   (4) The coastline stretched for miles towards the south.
       Obala se pružala miljama ka jugu.

2. "Pure" reflexive verbs, that is those that require a reflexive pronoun, are much less numerous in E than in SC. Some such verbs in E are:

   absent oneself (from) - udaljiti se (od, iz)¹
   assert oneself - istaći se, zahtijevati svoje pravo
   avail oneself (of) - koristiti se
   bear oneself - držati se, ponašati se
   bestir oneself - razmrdati se, napregnuti se
   betake oneself - djenuti se
   bethink oneself - promisliti se, sjetiti se
busy oneself (with) - baviti se poslom, poslovati
comport oneself - vladati se, ponašati se
compose oneself - smiriti se
conduct oneself - vladati se, ponašati se
demean oneself - poniziti se
deport oneself - ponašati se, držati se
perjure oneself - krivo se zakleti
pique oneself - naljutiti se, uvrijediti se
plume oneself - razmetati se
pride oneself (on) - ponositi se, gorditi se

It should be noted that some of these verbs are used exclusively with a reflexive pronoun (perjure oneself, pride oneself), whereas in some other verbs from the list there is a change of meaning if they are employed without a reflexive pronoun (assert, bear, compose). The counterparts of all these E reflexives in SC are commonly reflexive verbs, although one and the same E verb can be rendered into SC with either a reflexive verb or a non-reflexive synonym:

(5) During the interval he tried to compose himself.
Za vrijeme pauze nastojao je da se pribere.
(6) She prides herself on her ability to sew.
Ona se ponosi svojom sposobnošću da bije.
(7) He betook himself to do that.
Naumio je/smislio je da to uradi.
(8) She betook herself to another place.
Otišla je u drugo mjesto.

In view of these examples one must draw the attention of SC learners to the fact that some SC non-reflexives have reflexive verbs corresponding to them in E. In preparing teaching materials the best policy would be to list a number of such cases.
3. Generally, the reflexive pronoun is employed in E "when we think of a person or thing as acting on himself or itself", whereas the non-reflexive, intransitive form is used "when the idea of an action pure and simple, or a development or result presents itself to our mind." The following two sentences can help illustrate this point:

(9) The young man applied himself to the study of medicine.
Mladi čovjek se predao studiju medicine.
(10) They applied to a policeman for help.
Obratili su se policajcu za pomoć.

It may readily be assumed that SC speakers will tend to say, in sentence 2.
* They applied themselves to a policeman...; which is incorrect.

4. This tendency in E of moving away from the reflexive form towards an intransitive form whenever there is a logical or semantic justification for it is not encountered in SC, where reflexive verbal usage is far more widespread:

(11) The aircraft crashed in the Himalayas.
Avion se srugio u Himalajima.
(12) Making shoes does not pay in this town.
Izradjivanje cipela se ne isplati u ovom gradu.
(13) The partisans fought against the enemy.
Partizani su se borili protiv neprijatelja.

5. In general, SC reflexive verbs can be divided into three main groups:

a. true reflexives (pravi povratni glagoli)
b. quasi reflexives (nepravi povratni glagoli)
c. reciprocal reflexives (uzajamno povratni glagoli)

a. True reflexive verbs are those that show an action performed by the subject on itself - the subject and the object are the same person or thing:

(14) Ovaj se učenik hvali kad god razgovarate s nim.
This pupil boasts whenever you talk to him.
(15) Oprao se čim je došao kući.
He washed as soon as he came home.

SC "true" reflexives usually correspond to E intransitives, as is shown in the
above examples, but this kind of SC reflexives can also have E reflexive verbs
as counterparts (poslužiti se - help oneself, obvezati se - commit oneself,
etc.)

The morpheme "se" in SC "true" reflexive verbs represents the direct object
of the verb, and can also appear in the form of "sebe", with a stronger
semantic emphasis. The verb and the "se", accordingly, form two syntactic
units (predicate + object) and can be represented as V+se.  

b. Quasi reflexives are those verbs whose reflexive pronoun ("se") has lost
its original reflexive meaning. Such verbs cannot be used without this pronoun,
nor can the enclitic form of the pronoun ("se") be replaced by the emphatic
form ("sebe"), as in the case of "true" reflexives. The verb and the morpheme
"se" form one syntactic unit — a predicate form: V+se.  

This kind of SC reflexive verbs (bojati se, stidjeti se, etc.) seems to correspond
exclusively to E intransitives, not reflexives:

(16) Smijao se cijelo vrijeme.
He laughed all the time.

(17) Nadao sam se da ćeš doći.
I hoped that you would come.

(18) Čudio se zašto nisu otopovali.
He wondered why they had not left.

c. Reciprocal reflexives express an action of two or more subjects acting
on one another:

(19) Dječaci se stadoše tući.
The boys started to fight.
They kissed and parted.

They met in the garden.

The "se" with these verbs can be replaced by only one form of direct object, i.e. "jedan drugog", "jedn. i druge". In SC there can sometimes arise an ambiguity in the meaning of these verbs. Thus, in: "Ljudi se traže", we cannot determine whether it is: "Men seek one another", or: "Men are sought", or even: "Men seek themselves" (i.e. their own identities).

When SC reciprocal reflexives are translated into E, the use of the reciprocal pronouns "each other" and "one another" is possible, e.g. meet each other, kiss one another. However, it seems that the reciprocal pronouns are rarely used with more frequent E verbs and SC learners should avoid using such sentences as "They met each other in London".

The meaning of reciprocity can also be indicated in SC by "medjusobno", which can be rendered in E with verb + among/between + reflexive pronoun:

They quarrelled (among themselves).

The boys agreed (among themselves).

SC reflexive verbs can denote an action or state happening or developing of itself. This seems to be commonly the case with verbs expressing some natural phenomenon or occurrence. In these cases E has intransitive, non-reflexive verbs:

The snow melted in the spring.
(25) Trupci se suše pred kućom.
The logs are drying in front of the house.

(26) Mjesec se okreće oko Zemlje.
The moon turns round the earth.

7. Another use of the pronoun "se" can be pointed out in ordinarily non-reflexive SC verbs when a noun phrase in the dative is introduced.

(27) Pije mi se čaj.
I feel like drinking tea.

(28) Ne ide mi se tamo.
I don't feel like going there.

The cases of SC reflexive usage have no correspondences in E and are usually translated into E idiomatically.

8. Frequently, SC verbs used reflexively have a passive meaning — in fact, this is one of the ways to express passivity in SC. This use of SC reflexives corresponds to the E passive:

(29) Ovdje se govori engleski.
English is spoken here.

(30) Njegova se knjiga mnogo čita.
His book is widely read.

9. With a number of E verbs the use of the reflexive pronoun is optional, i.e. there is no change of meaning of the verb whether we employ the reflexive pronoun or not. overeat or overeat oneself, oversleep or oversleep oneself, rest or rest oneself, etc.

In some other cases, however, there is a change in meaning when the reflexive pronoun is joined to the verb. Thus, we have:

(31a) The young girl was helping in the house all day.
Djevojka je pomagala u kući cijeli dan.
(31b) Help yourself to some cheese.
    Poslužite se sirom.

(32a) Strict laws bear heavily upon the population of the country.
    Surovi zakoni težko pritiskuju stanovništvo zemlje.

(32b) The boys bore themselves like grown-up men.
    Dječaci su se ponijeli kao odrasli ljudi.

10. SC speakers learning E should be aware of the fact that some SC non-reflexive - reflexive verb pairs are rendered into E by two different verbs.

    hvaliti - praise
    hvaliti se - boast
    čuvati - keep
    čuvati se - look out
    izgubiti - lose
    izgubiti se - disappear
    trošiti - spend
    trošiti se - wear out
    udesiti - arrange
    udesiti se - dress up
    umiješati - mix (into)
    umiješati se - interfere

11. In a number of E verbs denoting an action clearly performed upon the subject the reflexive pronoun is not employed, unlike many other languages, including SC:

    (33) He dresses in a strange manner.
        Oblači se na čudan način.

    (34) She washed before going out.
        Oprala se prije izlaska.

    (35) He shaves twice a day.
        Brije se dvaput dnevno.
Although the reflexive pronoun can be joined to both "dress", "wash", and "shave", with no change in meaning (in the above cases), this is not usually done. It appears that the reflexive pronoun is left out with more frequent (or "everyday") E verbs. In this connection examples of possible ambiguity can be found. Thus, the sentence:

(36) He never shaves before ten o'clock.

can be interpreted either as "On nikada ne brije prije deset sati" (i.e. he is a barber), or "On se nikada ne brije prije deset sati".

12. There is a group of E verbs which are normally transitive, but can also be used intransitively with a passive-like meaning. When these verbs are so used, the agent cannot be indicated, unlike the passive where an indication of the agent can normally be added.

(37) The cake is baking in the oven.

Kolač se peče u peći.

cf. The cake is being baked in the oven (by the cook).

(38) The lock won't open.

Brava neće da se otvori.

cf. This lock will never be opened (by anyone).

Nitko neće nikada otvoriti ovu bravu.

This construction, sometimes called the middle voice, is often used with adverbs to indicate the manner or possibility of an action, rather than a real performance of the action:

(39) These dry sticks break easily.

Ovi suhi štapovi se lako lome.

cf. These dry sticks can be broken easily (by anyone).

This dry stick is being broken (by the hunter).
His latest novel sells extremely well.
Njegov posljednji roman se prodaje neobično dobro.

His latest novel is sold by all bookstores.
(One cannot say: *is sold extremely well.)

Her book does not translate easily into Chinese.
Njena knjiga se ne prevodi lako na kineski.

Her book cannot be translated easily into Chinese (even by the most learned scholars).

All these examples have SC equivalents with a reflexive form of the verb.

Summary.

In teaching and learning E the following points should be kept in mind:

a. SC speakers must be aware of E "true" reflexive verbs and try to learn them as part of lexicon acquisition. A number of such verbs are shown on the list (sec. 2) and they have SC reflexive counterparts.

b. If the substitution "sebe" for "se" is possible in SC reflexive verbs ("true" reflexives - V+se). E verbs can have either intransitive or reflexive forms (sec 5. a) in these cases interference seems to be the greatest since we are dealing with partial overlap.

c. SC quasi reflexives (V+se) (sec. 5. b) correspond exclusively to E intransitive verbs and SC learners of E should not use any reflexive pronoun with the corresponding E verbs. However, it seems hardly likely that SC learners (at least at medium or higher levels) will tend to join the reflexive pronoun to E equivalents of "smijati se, bojati se, čuditi se", etc., since the SC reflexive pronoun used with these verbs seems to have no functional value any more.

d. SC speakers must also be made aware of the E verbs which can have both reflexive and non-reflexive forms with a change in meaning when the
reflexive pronoun is used, and 2. no change in meaning whether the reflexive pronoun is employed or not (sec. 9.)

e. SC learners should bear in mind the intransitive usage of some E verbs usually employed transitively (when they express a quasi activity of inanimate subjects) (sec. 12.) and refrain from transferring SC verb features to E: * "This book sells itself well", or * "The cloth tears itself quickly".

NOTES

1. A point worth noting is that most of these E reflexives sound somewhat or very archaic (betake, bethink, comport). This could be interpreted as a tendency of E to reduce the number of its reflexives. Also worth mentioning is the fact that a comparatively large number of E "pure" reflexives from the list denote behaviour.


3. M. Ivčič, "Jedan problem slovenske sintagmatike osvetljen transformacionim metodom", Južnoslovenski filolog, XXV, str. 137-152. The symbolization has been taken over from this article.
A. SHALL

a. Lexis

1. (1) I shall finish it.
   (2) There we shall be free and unknown.
   (3) I shall have seen him when I get there.
   (4) You shall have it tomorrow.
   (5) He shall do it.
   (6) You shall have seen him before I leave.
   (7) Shall I close the door?

2. The examples above summarise all the uses and meanings of shall. In the examples (1)-(3) we have the predictive shall, occurring normally with first person subjects and replaceable by will.

3. Examples (4)-(6) illustrate the shall expressing promise (or threat) which occurs with second and third person subjects. It is a stylistically marked form which belongs to formal or Biblical language. It is not replaceable by will.

4. The example (7) illustrates shall asking about the desire of the person addressed. It occurs with first person subjects.

*This is a sequel to my article "Lexico-Grammatical Features of MUST, SHOULD and OUGHT TO and Their Equivalents in Serbo-Croatian" published in Reports 2, pp. 120-134.
5. A constant translation equivalent of shall in all these uses is the enclitic form of the verb htjet (i.e. Ću, ćeš etc.) + infinitive, that is the SC future tense:

(1 SC) Ja Ću to završiti.
(2 SC) Tamo ćešmo biti slobodni i nepoznati.
(3 SC) Vidjet će ga kad stignem tamo.
(4 SC) Dobit ćeš to sutra (obećajem).
(5 SC) Učinit će on to (kažem ti).
(6 SC) Vidjet ćete ga prije nego ja otidjem (sigurno).
(7 SC) Hoću li zatvoriti vrata? Da zatvorim vrata?

The SC future tense translates all the patterns although some additional lexical material may be felt necessary to cover the meaning of (4), (5), (6). Example (7) may be translated by the future tense or by dat+present.

b. Time reference

6. Shall always refers to future time even when followed by the perfect infinitive (cf. (3) and (6)).

c. Sequence of tenses

7. If (1) is reported we shall probably have:

He said he would finish it.

and not he should finish it because "the choice of would or should depends on the pronoun rather than on the occurrence of will and shall in the original utterance".

d. Shall in temporal and conditional clauses

8. The predictive shall as found in (1), (2), and (3), i.e. when it functions as the future tense signal, is not used in conditional and temporal subordinate clauses:

*If I shall come he will go.
*When I shall come he will leave.
are not idiomatic English sentences. Simple present is used instead:

If I *come* he will go.
When I *come* he will go.

It is odd that this should represent a teaching problem because from the contrastive point of view the situation is very similar in corresponding SC constructions:

* Ako *du ja dodi*, on de ići.
* Kad *du ja dodi*, on de otidi.

are not acceptable sentences in Standard SC though they are used dialectally. Standard SC requires present tense:

Ako *dodjem*, on de idi.
Kad *dodjem*, on de otidi.

e. Pedagogical Implications

9 The subtle stylistic effects obtained by the choice between *shall* and *will* in the first person should not take too much teaching time as there is little consensus among educated native speakers with regard to this. 'II is an excellent neutral solution in teaching and it is to be recommended.

10 Compared to other modals *shall* has a low frequency of occurrence. It occurs e.g. in the Brown corpus 267 times alongside 2244 occurrences of *will*. Particularly rare is its occurrence with the second and third person pronouns. This statistical fact can help the teacher and the maker of textbooks as an orientation. However such low frequency of occurrence ought not to make for the complete neglect of *shall* and especially of its function with the second and third person pronouns at higher levels of English language teaching.

11. The only contrastive fact to be pointed out is that *shall*+infinitive need not be translated with SC future tense in questions; it may also be
covered by da+present (cf. 7).

12. It should perhaps be added that shall with second and third person subjects when translated into SC may require additional lexical material apart from the SC future tense (cf (4), (5), (6)).

13. Shall with second and third person subjects is used in subordinate clauses of condition (cf. 8.):

What shall it profit a man, if he shall gain the whole world and lose his own soul?

The example illustrates well the kind of style this shall belongs to.

B. WILL

a. Lexis

1. Six different meanings of will can be established. These are illustrated by the following sentences:

**Futurity**

(1) The letters will arrive in a few days.

(1SC) Pisma će stići za nekoliko dana.

**Volition**

(2) If he will come tomorrow I'll be happy.

(2SC) Ako hoće (ako je voljan) doći sutra, bit ću sretan.

(3) Will you come with us this evening?

(3SC) Hoćete li (želite li) doći s nama večeras?

(4) He won't listen.

(4SC) Neće da sluša.

**Induction**

(5) Pigs'll eat anything.

(5SC) Svinje jedu sve.

**Characteristic activity (habit.)**: (6) She will sit there for hours doing nothing

(6SC) Ona će tu sjediti satima ne radeći ništa.

**Probability**

(7) The French will be having a holiday today.

(7SC) Bit će da Francuzi imaju danas praznik.

(8) That will be the postman.

(8SC) To će biti poštar.
insistence (9) Your father will have his way

(9SC) Tvoj otac hoće na svoj način.

1. In spite of various possibilities for translating e.g. (2), (3), and (5), one could say that the verb htjeti covers all the meanings of will. If the learner identifies htjeti with will he will not be faced with special interference problems from the semantic point of view since htjeti (especially in its forms ču, češ etc.) suggests other meanings apart from signalling future time reference in a way similar to will. Still it should be pointed out to the learner that (3) is not a straightforward question but an invitation and that a corresponding plain question would be:

Are you coming with us this evening? (Are you going to come...?)

Ideš li s nama večeras?

3. Note also the SC construction bit če in (7SC) which best suggests the meaning of probability.

4. In the sense (1), futurity, will is replaceable by shall when the subject is in the first person.

b) Past tense

5. An important task of the textbook writer will be to make learners aware that the relation between pairs like will - would (can - could, may - might) is not the simple one of present and past but that this relation is much more complex. A present - past relation between will and would does exist (besides other relations); i.e. would can refer to the past time in main clauses and then it can be considered the past tense of will. Of the 6 meanings of will quoted in Lexis the following have the
past tense expressed by **would**:

**Volition**

(4) He won't listen.

He wouldn't listen.

*Nije htio da sluša.*

**Characteristic activity.**

(6) She will sit there for hours doing nothing.

She **would** sit there for hours doing nothing

*(when she was a child).*

*Ona bi tamo sjedila satima ne radeći ništa.*

**Probability**

(8) That will be the postman.

That **would have been** the postman (who called an hour ago).

*Bit će da je bio poštar.*

**Insistence**

(9) Your father will have his way.

Your father **would have** his way.

*Tvoj je otac htio na svoj način.*

6. **Would** cannot express the past tense of futurity **will** and induction **will**

For the former were to is used (e.g. *The letters were to arrive in a few days*); and the latter is not usual with past time reference.

7. Note that in the sense of probability to express past tense **would** is

followed by the **perfect infinitive**. **Would + infinitive** is reserved for

the "tentative" meaning (see later).

8. In the sense of probability **will + perfect infinitive** may refer to the past

(7) The French will be having a holiday today.

(7b) The French will have been having a holiday yesterday.

(7bSC) *Bit će da su Francuzi jučer imali praznik.*

**c. Future perfect**

9. The dominant meaning of **will** is the reference to the future, but followed

by the **perfect infinitive** **will** may refer to the future perfect "a period
preceding but going up to a future point in time" e.g.

He will have answered the letter by Friday.

Odgovorit će na pismo do petka.

The time reference of this will is difficult to grasp for the native speaker of SC who uses in SC the normal future tense in such situations with only the adverbial to specify the time reference.

d. Sequence of tenses

10. When introduced by the past tense of the reporting verb, will becomes would in all its different meanings e.g.

(1) He said that the letters would arrive in a few days.

(SC) Rekao je da će pisma stići za nekoliko dana.

11. Except for a minor rearrangement of the word order (enclitic forms će, ćeš etc. now precede the subject of the reported sentence) nothing changes in the SC sentence and the would which results from this shifting remains će, ćeš etc.

12. The interference problem here springs from the fact that this kind of shifting does not exist in SC, and also, apparently, from the learner’s identification of će, ćeš etc. with will and bih, bi etc. with would. The difficulties which arise here are: first, recognizing this would as će, ćeš etc. in texts and avoid confusing it with the would which signals the conditional, and, second, overcoming the learner’s resistance to the English process of shifting verbal forms. Opportunities for mistakes of both types are ample because would as shifted will is one of the most frequent uses of would in certain texts (fiction) according to some limited counts available.
13. There is a relation between will and would in which would (similar to might and could) is less positive in statements and more polite in requests:

(8) That will be the postman. 
To će biti poštar.

(3) Will you come with us this evening? Would you come with us this evening? 
Hoćete li (želite li) doći s nama? Da li biste došli (željeli) doći s nama?

The relation exists in SC and is expressed by će, ćeš etc. + infinitive versus bih, bi + "i" participle and consequently ought not to represent a teaching problem.

As is evident from the examples, there is a comparable relation in SC between the future tense form and the conditional form, and that can help in making learners grasp this gradation of statements and questions with will and would.

14. Although will in the sense of volition (cf. (2)) is found in temporal and conditional clauses, will serving as the signal for the future tense (cf. (1)) is not found in this context. The simple present refers to the future in such sentences, e.g. If he comes tomorrow, he will bring the letter. It is well known that learners tend to use will + infinitive here. To explain this mistake by contrastive interference would be possible only for some dialect speakers (Kajkavians) who when speaking standard SC use će, ćeš + inf. in SC conditional and temporal
clauses e. g.

* Kad će doći, ja ću mu reći.
* Ako će doći, ja ću mu reći.

The presumption here, of course, would be that they then identify ću, ćeš etc. with will. For standard SC speakers (Štokavićans) this explanation is hardly applicable as ću, ćeš etc. as future signals are not used in conditional and temporal clauses in Štokavian, e. g.

Kad dodje, ja ću ga vidjeti.
Ako dodje, ja ću ga vidjeti.

The mistake may be due to the simplified teaching according to which future tense in English is shall/will + infinitive without exception.

15. The only suggestion for teaching one would venture is that will should be banned at first from conditional and temporal clauses, and when this has been internalized the specific meaning of will in such contexts should be explained and drilled in sentences contrasting the presence and absence of will.

16. We have seen that the most frequent translation equivalent of will is ću, ćeš etc. However there are rather frequent patterns with will one comes across - I call them here clichés - which are as a rule translated by corresponding "cliché" patterns in SC which do not necessarily contain ću, ćeš etc.

I'll tell you what I would have said to Hoffa.
Znate što bih ja rekao Hoffu.

Come to the kitchen, will you?
Dodji u kuhinju, molim te.
That will be all.
To je sve.
I'll be right down.
Evo me odmah.
I'll give you that.
To ti priznajem.

h. Pedagogical implications

17. Presenting carefully and gradually the relations between will and would, eradicating the unnecessary will in temporal and conditional clauses, and encouraging the use of unstressed and reduced form 'll in most places should be the aim of the textbook writer in his drills and texts.

C. WOULD

a. Lexis

1. We have discussed would corresponding to different meanings of will in connection with the past tense, sequence of tenses, and tentative use of will. The remaining uses which in their meanings are not so directly connected with will may be illustrated by the following sentences and their translation equivalents in SC:

   (1) They would come (if you asked them).
   (1SC) Oni bi došli (ako th pozovete).

   (2) They would have come (if you had asked them).
   (2SC) Oni bi (bili) došli (da ste th pozvali).

   (3) I wish it would last forever.
   (3SC) Želio bih da to zauvijek potraje.

   (4) (Could you tell me where he lives?) I wouldn't know.
   (4SC) (Znate li gdje on živi?) Ne bih znao.
(5) (He tore his new trousers) He would.
(5SC) (Poderao je nove hlače) Hoče on.

(5b) (He did not understand a thing.) He wouldn't.
(5bSC) (Ništa nije razumio) Drugo se ne može od njega ni očekivati.

2. Sentences (1) and (2) exemplify would which expresses the conditional and they will be dealt with in connection with time reference.

3. Would in (3) is normally used to express a wish (after the verb wish or after if only...) The SC translation equivalent is an indicative tense not the conditional, interference may lead the learner to use an indicative tense in English in such contexts. This pattern should therefore be carefully drilled. The expression of wish is not infrequent in language use even at a lower level of proficiency.

4. The relation between (4), I wouldn't know, and I don't know is comparable to the relation between Ne bih znao and Ne znam in SC. The former pattern in both languages is "softened" and more polite.

5. In (5) an ironic and not infrequent use of would is illustrated. Note that there is an approximate idiomatic equivalent in SC when would in this use is in the affirmative. Negative would in the same meaning requires descriptive translation.

b. Time reference

6. Would can refer to present time (or "all time"), to past, and to future.

   We have discussed some uses of would referring to the past in the section on will.

7. In sentences (1), (4), (5) would refers to the present (and "all time"), in (2) to the future and in (1) it may also refer to the future.
8. Sentence (2) is of contrastive interest as would + perfect infinitive there refers to past-time and implies that the action of the main verb was not fulfilled. Both translation equivalents given (with the present and the past conditional) are possible, but neither can express both the past time reference and the meaning of non-fulfilment and additional lexical signals sometimes have to be added (Oni bi bill doši all nisu).

9. There is another problem which may cause some interference in connection with the use of would as illustrated in (1) and (2). A substitution test on the SC translation equivalent of (2) shows that there is a negligible difference between the SC present and past conditional i.e. between Oni bi doši and Oni bi bill doši. This may lead the learner to presume that would + infinitive and would + have + past participle can also be freely substituted. This of course may cause grave mistakes.

The difference in meaning and time reference of the two constructions should be clarified in appropriate drills and translation exercises.

c. Sequence of tenses

10. As a rule would reports would in reported speech when the reporting verb is in the past tense. e.g.

I would go there every day
Ho said he would go there every day.
Idao bib tamo svaki dan.
Rekao je da bi idao tam'o svaki dan.

We suggest that this fact should be made explicit to the learners at some point as this can cause confusion due to the fact that the learner has been taught to expect some change in reported speech.
d. Pedagogical implications

A textbook author will be well advised in connection with presenting *would* a. to clarify its use in the conditional meaning when followed by the infinitive and by the perfect infinitive, b. to develop the learner’s awareness of certain uses of *would* which are not suggested by any signals in the learner’s mother tongue as e.g. in sentence (3).

D. CAN and COULD

a. Lexis

1. *Can* has several meanings, which are worthwhile illustrating here, as the form of the past and future tenses of *can* depends on the meaning in which it is used in a particular case. The possibility of substituting *can* for *may* depends on its meaning. Finally the illustrations should also help to show how far the SC verb *moži* covers the area of *can*.

**Ability:**

(1) He can lift a hundredweight.
(1SC) On *može* podigniti pedeset kila.

**Characteristic:**

(2) He can tell awful lies.
(2SC) On *znal pričati* priča grdne laži.

**Permission:**

(3) He can (may) do as he likes.
(3SC) On *može* (smije) raditi kako hoče.

**Possibility:**

(4) He can (may) be hiding.
(4SC) *Možda* se skriva.

**Willingness:**

(5) Can (will) you pass the salt?
(5SC) *Možete* (hodete) li mi dodati so?

**Sensation:**

(6) I can see the moon.
(6SC) *Vidim* mjesec.

2. Special attention should be paid to (2) and (6) as the learner has no indication in SC that English requires the verb *can* there. (6) is an
illustration of the use of can with verbs like see, hear, feel (verbs of sensation). Can adds very little or nothing to the meaning of the main verb, but its use is idiomatic.

Note that in the sense of Permission and Possibility (likelihood) (3) and (4) only can may be substituted by may.

b. Past tense

1. As we have said, the form of the past tense of the verb can depends on the sense in which it is being used. We must remember, and remind the learner in an adequate way, that could is not the past tense form of can in all its meanings, but that could may have different functions, primarily that of tentativeness (Can you come? - Could you come? /Možete li doći? - Biste li mogli doći?) where past time relation is not implied.

2. We shall now turn the sentences from (1) through (6) into the past tense where this is possible:

(1p) He could lift a hundredweight (when he was young).
(1pa) He was able to lift a hundredweight (when he was young).
(1SC) On je mogao podignuti pedeset kilograma (kad je bio mlad)
(2p) He could tell awful lies (in the old days).
(2SC) Pričao (znao je pričati) grde laži (u stari vremena).
(3p) He could do as he liked.
(3SC) Mogao je raditi kako je htio.
(4p) He can have been hiding (yesterday).
(4SC) Možda se južer skrivao. (Može biti da se skrivao. Mogao se skrivati.)
(5p) Could you have passed the salt (when she asked you to).
(5SC) Jeste li mogli dodati so (kad je ona tražila).
(6p) I could see the moon.
(6SC) Vidio sam mjesec.
Some of the sentences listed above would rarely occur in the past tense e.g. (3p). If sentence (5) is turned into the past tense, can loses its meaning of Willingness and denotes Ability.

Note the past tense of can in the sense of Possibility (likelihood) (4p). The examples also show that was able which is sometimes presented as a synonym of could may be so considered only in the sense of Ability (1pa). Substituting was able for could e.g. in (6p) would change the meaning of the statement.

3. On the SC side there are three sentences which normally do not require modi, the most frequent translation equivalent of can, which perhaps signals that the learner may tend not to use can in those contexts, or find himself at a loss as to what verbal form to use. Znati in (2SC) may lead him to use, quite wrongly, the verb to know (*He knew to tell...), and it may take time before he begins to feel the need of putting can in front of the verbs of sensation (6p). The last is, of course, a refinement, but by providing the learner early with the right kind of patterns containing this combination his feeling for the construction may be developed.

c. Sequence of tenses.

4. With a past tense verb of reporting could is used instead of can, e.g.:

   (6st) He said he could see the moon.
   (6stSC)Rekao je da može vidjeti mjesec.

5. Some difficulties in understanding the time relation of the statement as well as in following the sequence of tenses rule may be expected here as a result of contrastive interference.
d. Future tense

Although *can* may refer to future time and may collocate with future time adverbials, in some of its meanings it is not used with future reference. Thus (1) used with future reference must be expressed with *be able* and not with *can*.

(7) He will be able to lift a hundredweight tomorrow.

SC translation requires the future tense of *modi* here.

In the meaning Characteristic (2) *can* is not used with future reference. If it were used with future time adverbs it would imply Possibility (cf (2)).

e. Pedagogical implications

*Can* as used in (2), (4), and (6), the tentative and past time use of *could*, the limitations of the use of *be able* as a synonym of *can*, and the possibilities of replacing *can* by *may* ought to be found among the drills connected with this modal verb. As always with the modals, the meaning of the construction *could* plus perfect infinitive (past time reference and non-fulfilment) should be clarified.

E. MAY and MIGHT

a. Lexie

1. Two main meanings of *may* can be established:

1 Permission

(1) You may go.

(SC) *Smiješ ići. (Možeš ići)*
2 Possibility

(2) He may come tomorrow.
(2SC) Možda će doći (možda dolazi) sutra. (Može doći sutra)

2. The two meanings have two different translations in SC. Permission may is translated by smijeti and Possibility may by možda plus the main verb in any tense which is required. It shouldn't be overlooked however that the SC verb moći may cover both meanings of may. (cf (1), (1SC), (2), (2SC)) but smijeti covers only Permission may.

3. There are some problems in the use of may with regard to the two main meanings which might be difficult for a foreign learner to grasp and require special attention.

May in the sense of Possibility is not used in questions because then it implies the meaning of Permission:

(3) May he come tomorrow?

means:

(3SC) Smije li doći sutra?

In order to express Possibility might or can is used in questions.

(4) Might (can) he come tomorrow?
(4SC) Da li bi mogao doći sutra? (Može li se dogoditi da dodje sutra?)

If the meaning of (3) is expressed with smijeti in SC it is unambiguous in the sense of Permission, but if moći is used, both (3SC) and (4SC) remain ambiguous.

4. The replacement of may by might (to modify the meaning in the sense of "tentativeness" or politeness) is also restricted by the two main meanings of may. Thus Permission may (1) cannot be replaced by might because it would be interpreted as Possibility:

(5) You might go.
(5SC) Mogao bi ideti.
When *may* denotes Possibility it can always be replaced by *might*.

Cf (2) with:

(6) He *might* come tomorrow.

(6SC) *Mogao bi doći sutra.* (Mozda će doći sutra)

N.B. *May* may be replaced by *can* in both senses.

b. **Time reference**

5. *May* (and *might*) in both meanings refer to the present or future. Note that *might* in main clauses (i.e. when sequence of tense rules are not applicable) is not normally the past tense of *may*. Mistakes of this kind could be normally expected here as the result of the analogy with *walk_-*walked, and contrastive reasons. *smijem-smio sam, mogu-mogao sam*

c. **Sequence of tenses**

6. With the past tense verb of reporting *may* is shifted and becomes *might*.

and *might* remains unchanged:

(7) I *may* go.

(7st) He said he *might* go

d. **Past tense**

7. The forms to express the past tense depend on the two meanings of *may*.

Permission *may* can express the past tense only by a paraphrase.

Compare (1) with:

(8) He permitted him to go.

In the sense of Possibility the past tense is expressed by *may* (*might*) combined with the perfect infinitive:

(9) He *may* (*might*) have come last week.

*Možda je došao prošlog tjedna.* (Mogao je doći prošlog tjedna)
8. Note that might and perfect infinitive may or may not express unfulfilled action (as distinguished from such constructions with other modals, should, would etc., which always do so.)

(10) You might have noticed.

(10SC) Možda ste primijetili.

(11) I might have won the prize if I had worked harder.

(11SC) Mogao sam dobiti nagradu da sam više radio.

This point is worth presenting as it would take time for the advanced learner to come to this conclusion.

e. May and Might in Subordinate Clauses

9. There are some uses of may and might which because of their relatively low frequency but also for contrastive reasons may go unnoticed by the learner.

In clauses of intention:

(12) Tell him so that he may know before anybody else.

(12SC) Kaži mu da sazna (da bi saznao) prije drugih.

(13) I gave him the book that he might have something to read on the journey.

(13SC) Dao sem mu knjigu da ima (bi imao) šta čitati na putu.

In clauses of concession:

(14) However just his appeal may be, it will be disregarded.

(14SC) Ma koliko opravdana bila njegova molba, neće se uzeti u obzir.

The contrastive interference mentioned above could be expected because these sentences may normally contain the indicative in SC which does not signal the use of modals to the learner. (However see (13) and (14) with the conditional version).
f. Contracted Form of May with the Negative Particle

10. As distinguished from most modal verbs *may* is rarely found in the negative as *mayn't*. On the other hand certain native speakers can see a contrast between the contracted and non-contracted forms e.g.

(15) He *may* not go.
(15SC) *Možda* neće idži.

(16) He *mayn't* go.
(16SC) *Ne smije* idži.

g. Pedagogical implications

11. Learners use *can* to cover many uses of *may* and *might*. The reason may be that *can* is semantically the most general of the three, and it is most naturally identified with *modi*.

A similar tendency, i.e. generalizing the use of *can*, exists among native speakers of English in spite of the efforts to the contrary by prescriptive teaching. (Schoolroom witticisms like "Can I borrow your pen?" "You can, but you may not" sprang up from such efforts).

The textbook writer ought to be aware of both problems.

F. NEED

a. Lexis

1. There is a full verb *need* which is a transitive verb with normal full verb patterning e.g.:

(1) Tom *needs* a new coat.
(1SC) Tom *treba* novi kaput. Tomu je potreban novi kaput.

2. The modal verb *need*, that we are interested in here varies in its patterning so that it may have all the forms of the full verb or only the
defective forms of a modal auxiliary verb. As it is hard to find any contrast between the two patterns of the modal need, and only certain preferences may be suggested, it is hard to decide on a single correct pattern in teaching. One point however is pretty certain, namely, that need as a modal verb is rarely found in the affirmative form, must and have to being preferred.

(2) Need he work so late?
(3) Does he need to work so late?

(2, 3, SC) Treba li da radi u tako kasne sate?
(4) He needn't work so late.
(5) He doesn't need to work so late.

(4, 5 SC) Ne treba da radi u tako kasne sate.

3. The SC translation equivalent of need is trebati. This SC verb also can be either full and transitive or it can function as a kind of modal in which case it shows, in some dialects including a very strict Standard, the lack of personal endings.

b. Past tense

4. Modal need may refer to the past time in the regular preterite form but also by the combination of need and perfect infinitive. Note the difference in meaning between the two patterns:

(6) They didn't need to stay
(7) They needn't have stayed

(6, 7SC) Nije trebalo da ostanu.

The SC translation is adequate only for (6), (7) implies that staying was unnecessary and thus the addition ali su ostali or some other indication in the wider context is required.
c. Future time

5. Need may refer to the future and may collocate with future time adverbials e.g.

   (8) They needn't stay tomorrow.

d. Sequence of tenses

6. (9) He said he needn't go.
   (10) He said he didn't need to go.

Both forms are possible in reported speech with the past tense introductory verb.

e. Pedagogical implications

7. There are indications that the learner by identifying need with trebati may tend to overuse the modal need in affirmative statements and he ought to be led to use have to or must instead.

8. It is very important to relate needn't to must and make it clear that needn't is its semantic negative.

9. The difference between (6) and (7) ought to be clearly pointed out.

G. DARE

a. Lexis

1. There is a full verb dare which could be paraphrased as challenge and it displays a full verb patterning e.g.

   (1) I dare you to dive from here.
   (1SC) Skoči ovdje ako se ne bojiš.

   but here we are interested in the modal dare which may have the patterning of a. a full verb, b. a modal auxiliary, c. a special "hybrid" patterning containing features of both.
(2) He doesn't dare to go.
(2SC) Ne usuditje se ido.

(3) Do you dare do it?
(3SC) Usuditje li se to učiniti?

(4) You dare not do it.
(4SC) Ne usuditje se (ne bi se usudio) to učiniti.

(5) Do you dare (to) eat this?
(5SC) Usuditje li se to jesti?

The nearest translation equivalent in SC is usuditi se, but smjeti is also possible particularly in the Eastern variant of SC, of course, in the sense of have the courage to (not in the sense be allowed to).

**Past tense**

(6) I didn't come yesterday.
(7) I didn't dare (to) come yesterday.
(6, 7SC) Nisam se usudio doći jučer.

(8) I didn't have asked him when we met.
(8SC) Nisam ga se usudio pitati kad smo se sreli.

There are three possibilities for forming the past tense. A difference in meaning exists between (7) and (8) since (8) implies that the action of the main verb was not completed. The SC verbal translation does not make this point clear and would normally require further indication to that effect. Example (6) is rare and belongs to Brit. English.

**Sequence of tenses**

(9) He said he didn't go.
(10) He said he didn't dare (to) go.
(9, 10 SC) Rekao je da se ne usudjuje ido.

Dare may remain unchanged after the reporting verb in the past tense or it may behave as a full verb following the normal sequence of tenses rules.
d. Future tense

5. Dare may collocate with future time adverbials and may refer to the future:

   (11) I daren’t ask him about that tomorrow.
   (11SC) Neču se usuditi pitati ga o tome sutra.

6. Two frequent uses of dare

   (12) I dare say you are right (British E.)
   (12SC) Vjerujem imaš pravo.

7. Don’t you dare go!
   (13SC) Da se nisao usudio ići!

8. Special attention to dare will be normally given only at an advanced level of learners’ proficiency. This is an extremely infrequent verb, very often hard to translate into SC or even paraphrase in English, and it may be expected that its lexical meaning may cause some difficulty. Add to this its involved patterning and the problem of its adequate presentation will become clear. Some research (hampered by its infrequency, thus e.g. the Brown corpus has only 53 occurrences of dare as full and modal verb) on the distribution of its various forms has been done but the results offer very little that could help the practical teaching. The textbook writer is invited to look into the results of this research himself. The learner will probably treat dare as a full verb and at the beginning level the teacher will simply have to tolerate this. Later he may introduce the auxiliary modal patterns.

H. USED TO

a. Lexis

1. Used to combined with the infinitive (and pronounced /ju:stə/) denotes a continued or repeated action in the past.
The most adequate translation equivalent of this verb plus the infinitive is the SC perfect of imperfective verbs.

(1) He used to play football before his marriage.

(ISC) On je igrao nogomet prije braka.

2 The fact that in the SC equivalent construction there is no special lexical element to cover *used to* may be one of the reasons why this verb, properly used, settles rather late with the learner.

An opposite situation could be also envisaged. In trying to translate element by element in a construction the learner (or his teacher) may tend to find an equivalent for *used to* which most frequently happens to be običavati or znati. In a very great number of cases such equivalents will prove unnecessary.

b. Time reference

*Used to* has this single form and refers only to the past. By analogy learners may tend to produce sentences like:

*(2)* I use to play football every day.

wanting thus to emphasize the repeated action in the present. Besides analogy, encouragement to produce such wrong sentences may come from the full verb *use* (pronounced juːz; past tense juːzd) and from the construction: *to be used* (juːzd) *(I am used to eating a big breakfast in the morning.*) This ought to be considered a warning for the textbook writer to pay adequate attention to the three constructions sharing the root *use.*
NOTES

1. F. R. Palmer, op. cit. p. 126
2. F. R. Palmer, op. cit. 138

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THE PRIMARY AUXILIARIES BE, HAVE, DO, AND THEIR EQUIVALENTS IN SERBO-CROATIAN

A. BE

a. Lexia

1. It is usual to distinguish be as a kind of full verb (with adverblals):

   (1) He is in the garden.
   (1SC) On je u vrtu.

   and be as a copula (with nouns, adjectives etc.):

   (2) He is a teacher.
   (2SC) On je učitelj.

   In both cases the verb be coincides with the verb biti in SC.

2. Finally be is an auxiliary verb and as such may be found mostly in the following patterns:

   (3) This was done.
   (3SC) To je izvršeno. (To je bilo izvršeno)
   (4) He is gone.
   (4SC) On je otišao.
   (5) He is coming.
   (5SC) (On) dolazi.
   (6) He is to be there.
   (6SC) (On) treba da bude tamo.

   The patterns illustrate the use of be in the passive (3), the use of be with some intransitive verbs (go, come, fall, grow) in making a form akin to the perfect (4), the use of be in forming continuous tenses (5), and be followed by the to-infinitive expressing duty, intention and
possibility and thus approaching the function of a modal verb (6).

b. Two contrastive points

3. As a result of mistaken identification of the forms of be in SC and English the learner may tend to use the wrong tense of the passive in expressions like:

(7SC) Ranjen je u borbi 1945.
*(7) *He is wounded in action in 1945.
(8SC) Rodjen je u Karlovcu.
*(8) *He is born in Karlovac.
(9SC) On je upozoren nekoliko puta.
*(9) *He is warned several times.

The correct translation equivalents of the SC sentences are:

(7) He was wounded in action in 1945.
(8) He was born in Karlovac.
(9) He has been warned several times.

There seems to be little difference between the present and past tense of the passive in SC, the latter being more specific and emphasizing the "pastness". The present passive may refer to the present time:

(10SC) Ranjen je ovaj čas.
(10) He has just been wounded.

and to the past time:

(7SC) Ranjen je u borbi 1945.
(7) He was wounded in action in 1945.

and in this use the present passive replaces the past (perfekt) passive.

(7SCp) Bio je ranjen u borbi 1945.

More will be said about this in the chapter on the passive and therefore let us merely note that while there is a kind of free variation between the present and past tense of the passive in SC, this is not true of English, and this fact causes interference of which the textbook writer
has to be aware.

4. As concerning (4) it should be mentioned that this is a minor pattern, replaceable by the present perfect and need not be introduced early into the teaching of English. One suspects that for contrastive reasons it would be easily internalized by the learner and perhaps transferred by analogy to other verbs which do not occur in this pattern. The results might be something like:

*(9) *He is read the book.

standing for:

(SSC) On je pročitao knjigu.

Even without having been taught this pattern, the learner may tend to combine the verb to be with the past participle or simply with the verb stem to express past or present perfect time reference e.g.

*(11) *He is buy (bought) a book.

clearly based on:

(11SC) On je kupio knjigu.

5. Be has the most differentiated morphology of all English verbs even when used as in (6) because in that use it has no non-finite forms (to be to does not exist and neither does he has been to in this sense). In its patterning (it is followed by to+infinitive) and its meaning (intention, duty, possibility) it is different from the other uses of be.

This use of be seems to be "underexploited" by the non-native speaker. Its nearest translation equivalent is trebati and morati and since these verbs are identified early in teaching with must, must probably encroaches on the area of am, are, is to. The drills containing this use of be in appropriate contexts may help here.
c. The pronunciation of the forms of be.

6. It has been mentioned (Reports I p. 40) that the auxiliaries may receive a stress. However when stressed the auxiliaries signal "the insistence on the truth value of the sentence as a whole" (Twaddell p.14). If such insistence is not required, the auxiliaries, including be, are used in their unstressed or weak forms. The weak forms of be are am [m], is [z, s], are[a], was [wɔ], were [wɔ], be [bɪ], been [bɛn].

It is only natural that the learner worrying about putting words together, tends to neglect the weak pronunciation of the auxiliaries.

As fully stressed forms have a grammatical meaning of their own, the native speaker can mistranscribe statements and questions pronounced in such an emphatic way.

d. The occurrence of be with the auxiliary do

7. One of the characteristic features of the auxiliaries is that they do not occur with do in the negative and in the interrogative and emphatic form. Still be may be found with do in the imperative.

(12) Don't be silly
(12SC) Ne budi glupav.
(13) Do be quiet.
(13SC) (Hajde) budi miran.

Be is also found with do in if-clauses like:

(14) If you be quick, you'll see them.
(14SC) Ako požuriš vidjet ćeš th.
(15) If you don't be quick, you'll miss them.
(15SC) Ako ne požuriš, nećeš ih zateći.

The replacement of be with are here causes a slight change of meaning:

(16) If you are quick, you'll see them.
(16SC) Ako si brz, vidjet ćeš th.
The former examples suggest temporary states and the latter permanent states.

As English has a specific way of forming the negative, interrogative and emphatic forms, different from SC, the above features have no contrastive interest but are important in teaching.

B. HAVE

a. **Lexis**

1. **Have** is found as an auxiliary in:

   (1) He's written the article.
   (1SC) Napisao je članak.
   (2) He's lived here since childhood.
   (2SC) Živi ovdje od djetinjstva.
   (3) You might have gone.
   (3SC) Mogli ste otići.

2. **Have** is found as a (lexical) full verb in:

   (4) I have (got) two new homes.
   (4SC) Imam dvije nove kuće.
   (5) They had breakfast at ten and so did we.
   (5SC) Doručovali su u deset a takodjer i mi.

3. **Have** sometimes bears characteristics of both the auxiliary and full verb as in:

   (6) I have (got) to go now.
   (6SC) Moram sada otići.
   (7) I am having a new house built.
   (7SC) Gradim kuću. (Gradi mi se kuća)
   (8) I'd better stay at home.
   (8SC) Radije ostajem kod kuće.

We shall now take up individual uses of have as exemplified in the above patterns and point out some of their structural features and the
contrastive and other teaching problems to which they give rise.

4. Have as an auxiliary signalling "perfectiveness" has no single verb in SC which could be considered its translation equivalent. With the full verb it makes up a unit — a verbal tense — which corresponds most frequently to two verbal tenses in SC, to the present and the perfekt. A similar grammatical function is found with have in the perfect infinitive (3).

5. The full verb have (as in (4), (5), (6), (7),) in American English has no anomalous forms and normally takes do in the negation, interrogation, repetition, and emphatic use. In British English, although there are speakers who conform to the same patterns as in American English, there is a subtle distinction in meaning when have is used with and without do. E.g.

(9) The village shop does not have ice-cream.

(9SC) Seoski dućan ne drži sladoled.

(10) The village shop has not (any) ice-cream.

(10SC) U seoskom dućanu (trenutačno) nema sladoleda.

The translation of the two English sentences shows that they are not in free variation but that they have different meanings. As a result the following is quite a possible sentence:

(11) The shop hasn't ice-cream, because it doesn't have ice-cream.

(11SC) U dućanu nema sladoleda, jer ne drže sladoleda.

To sum up the British usage the following rough sketch may be of some use

(i) Have in the sense of actual ownership, possession, and what is characteristic has anomalous finite forms (i.e. without do):

(12) He has plenty of money.

(12SC) On ima mnogo novca.
(13) Has he plenty of money? etc.

(13SC) Ima li on mnogo novaca?

(ii) Have in the sense 'take, receive, get, experience' has the forms of
the full verb: (i.e. with do):

(14) Did you have nice weather?
(14SC) Je li vam vrijeme bilo lijepo?

(15) We didn't have a letter from you yesterday.
(15SC) Nismo dobili vaše pismo jučer.

(16) What did she have, a boy or a girl?
(16SC) Što je dobila (rodila) dječaka ili djevojčicu?

(iii) When have refers to habitual "having" it shows the patterning of
a full verb:

(17) Does he have money in his pocket when he goes to
school? (cf. also (9))
(17SC) Ima li (nosi li) novaca u džepu kad ide u školu?

(iv) In the past tense did + have seem to be frequent even in those cases
in which (according to what has been summarized above) had not might
be expected:

(18) He did not have any money (cf. (12))
(18SC) Nije imao novaca.

Have in British usage exemplifies the close interrelation between meaning
and grammatical patterning which we have met in dealing with the modals
like must, may, can, etc.

There is no doubt that the patterning of have in American English is much
easier for the learner to acquire, however, if British English is taught.
the above subtle distinctions will have to be presented according to the
proficiency level of the learner.
5. A certain amount of interference may occur mainly if the learner identifies *imati* with *have*. In spite of a large semantic area that these two verbs have in common in SC and English respectively, there are points where their meanings diverge. At such points the learner's choice may be expected to be different from that of the native speaker. Presumably the learner with a SC language background will prefer "receive the letter" to "have the letter" owing to "primiti pismo" (and not "imati pismo"), "give birth to a baby" to "have a baby" owing to "roditi dijete" (and not "imati dijete" which means something else) etc. But here we have entered the field of lexical collocations. Note that "receive the letter" and "give birth to a baby" are correct English collocations. We only suspect that they are "overused" by the learner at the expense of the ones with *have* under the influence of the mentioned identification of *imati* with *have*.

6. **Have to**

The verb *have* may be followed by to + infinitive and this pattern is then synonymous with *must* (cf. Reports 2, p.133).

(19) I have to go now.

(19SC) Moram sada idži.

(20) They did not have to tell you that.

(20SC) Nisu ti morali to redi.

*Have to* has the grammar of the full verb i.e. it is used with *do*.

Although synonymous with *must* in the affirmative, the relationship between *must* and *have to* changes in the negative (cf *must*, Reports 2, p. 122)

The negative form of *have to* is the semantic negation of both *have to* and *must*:

(21) You must go.
(22) You have to go.
(23) You don't have to go.
It is certainly useful to point out that besides needn't (cf. Reports 2, p. 120ff.) don't have to is used to negate must semantically, as difficulties with the negative of must and its meaning can be expected in teaching, both for contrastive and analogical reasons.

7. Have got

When have is not an auxiliary proper as in (1), (2), (3), in many of its uses it has a colloquial alternative have got (to) mainly in the present tense. In the sentences (4), (6), (10), (12), (13), (19), (22) and (23) have (to) may be replaced by have got (to) without any change of meaning or time reference. The difference obtained is one of style i.e. more formal versus less formal.

It is undoubtedly more difficult to teach how to use have got than simple have. The learner has nothing similar in his mother tongue, and if he had happened to have learned present perfect before the introduction of this form into teaching, he may interpret it as an instance of that tense. We have also seen that each have cannot be replaced by have got but only the have which refers to a particular moment e.g.

(24) Have you (got) time for a game of tennis this afternoon?

But something habitual is not expressed with have got, e.g.

(25) Do you have much time for tennis?

(24, 25 SC) "imaš li vremena" is the equivalent of both patterns.

The frequency of the occurrence of have got in spoken English indicates that it should be introduced early in an English course.
8. **Have** is found in the pattern **Have - noun phrase - verb form** as in:

(26) *He has his house painted* once a year.

It is an unfamiliar structure to the SC speaker both grammatically and semantically.

It seems that this construction, reasonably current and frequent in English has a neutral equivalent in SC e. g.

(26SC₁) *Boja kuću svake godine.*

and another one which is used when there is a possibility for ambiguity

(26SC) *Da te bojati kuću svake godine.*

Also, the most appropriate equivalent to

(27) *I am having a new house built*

seems to be:

(27SC) *Gradi mi se nova kuća (Gradim novu kuću)*

This use of **have** requires special attention. In presenting this structure to our learners there is a tendency of overusing the pattern (26SC) in order to make it semantically clear. Other equivalent patterns ought also to be considered, like (27SC) and (26SC₁).

9. **Have** is used in a similar pattern in a slightly different meaning which again is not covered by **imati** in SC:

(28) *I'll have him open all the windows.*


The accusative with infinitive construction which we have in (28) is rendered by a clause in SC, and it is reasonable to expect difficulties in internalizing this pattern for the speakers of SC. Notice that the object (followed by the infinitive) performs the action in this pattern while in the previous one (26) it undergoes the action (and is followed by the
past participle). The textbook writer may be interested in the fact that
the present pattern (28) is - according to some estimates - less frequent
than the one previously described.

10. Sentence (8) exemplifies the use of have in the pattern I'd better. There
is no structural equivalent of this pattern in SC and even its meaning is
not always easy to paraphrase so that this pattern can be considered a
difficult one.

The sentence,

(29) I'd better go.

corresponds in SC to:

(29SC) Dobro bi bilo da idem. (Treba da idem)

(30) You'd better go.

is a kind of a request and corresponds to:

(30SC) Dobro bi bilo da podješ. (Treba da ideš)

Classroom practice leads us to believe that there is a certain amount
of confusion between the patterns I'd better and It would be better for me...
(among advanced students, of course,) and that the learner tends to
interpret both patterns as Bilo bi bolje... nego.... The confusion may
be due to the comparative better in both patterns, to the better - bolje
 correspondence, and the lack of an adequate fixed pattern which could
function as a translation equivalent in SC of the former. Although the
meaning of the two patterns is sometimes very close, the native speaker
can register a contrast between e.g.

(31) I'd better have a drink of milk.³

(31SC) Treba da popijem mlijeka.

and

(32) It would be better for me to have a drink of milk.³

(32SC) Bolje bi mi bilo da popijem malo mlijeka. (ali... / a
ne/nego etc.)
The first (31) pattern stating something like an obligation, duty etc. and the second (32) implying comparison (... than...)

11. Pronunciation

The speaker of SC should be taught that the auxiliary have is normally used in its weak form (v, v, z, d) as is often reflected in the orthography (You've worked).

Contrastive interference is to be expected when have as an auxiliary or as a full verb is followed by the word beginning with a voiceless sound. The speaker of SC will tend to change the v of have under the influence of the assimilation in his mother tongue into f which, however, does not occur in English. Thus the sentence:

\[ \text{ai} \ v \ t\text{eilkn it} \]

the SC speaker will be tempted to pronounce

\[ \text{*ai} \ f \ t\text{eilkn it} \]

and

\[ \text{ai} \ h\text{am} \ t\text{u: nju: h}\text{aumz} \]

as

\[ \text{*ai} \ h\text{ef} \ t\text{u: nju: h}\text{aumz} \]

However the assimilation does take place in the case of have to and:

\[ \text{ju: h}\text{aef 2 kam} \]

is the correct English pronunciation.

C. DO

a. Lexis

1. Do is found as a full verb and as an auxiliary.

Do is a full verb in:

(1) He does a lot of work.
(1SC) On mnogo radl.
As a full verb do requires (unlike be and partly have) the auxiliary do with negation, inversion, repetition, and for emphasis:

(2) He doesn't do a lot of work.
(2SC) On ne radi mnogo.

Classroom practice indicates that the learner produces sentences like:

(3) *What does he?
standing for
(4) What does he do?

This mistake may perhaps be explained by the analogy with be and have.

2. The use of do as an auxiliary, as the carrier of the negative, interrogative, repetition, and emphasis signals, represents a problem of "total learning" for the learner with SC as his mother tongue, as nothing similar in structure exists in SC.

A good teaching strategy and a lot of drill will be required here.

3. Some uses and some omissions of do usually escape the attention of textbook authors as they are not essential in beginning English, but may puzzle the learner at a higher level of proficiency. Here are a few examples:

(5) Not till then did I realize what had happened.
(5SC) Nisam do tada shvatio što se dogodilo.
(6) Who saw him kill the bird? I did. (Me)
(7) In his French writings one finds not a single German word.
(7SC) U njegovim francuskim napisima čitalac ne nalazi ni jednu njemačku riječ.
(8) He seemed not to notice.
(8SC) Činilo se da nije primijetio.
4. The use of do in the inverted order (5) is not found only in questions but is quite common when a negative adverbial or one near to being negative in meaning (seldom, rarely, etc) begins the sentence:

(10) Seldom do we hear such fine singing.
(10SC) Baš rijetko tujemo tako lijepo pjevanje.

However, there are examples which are not quite covered by the above rule (i.e. that adverbs beginning the sentence must have something negative in their meaning) as e.g.

(11) Well did I know him.
(11SC) Vrlo sam ga dobro znao.

The reason why this minor English pattern with do often remains neglected by textbook authors is obvious. It does not contain an essential use of do, and the pattern may be considered a stylistic variant of the one with the normal word order. Thus it concerns primarily advanced learners. It is difficult to give a single SC translation equivalent of the pattern with the inverted do. Intensifiers with the adjectives beginning the sentence seem to suggest comparable effects.

5. The use of do with the personal pronoun in the answer to the question as illustrated by (6) is one of the minor patterns that the speaker of SC tends to internalize rather late or not at all, possibly, owing to the equivalent in SC which is normally a bare personal pronoun in the nominative. Such a bare personal pronoun (in the objective case) can also be found in English in this pattern and that is naturally closer to the speaker of SC. Hence the neglect of the pattern with do to which however some attention ought to be paid. The direct interference would result in answering "I".
which is not acceptable in English.

8. In the negative type of sentence illustrated by (7) the absence of the do periphrasis can be attributed to the fact that not does not belong to the verb find but to another element in the construction. However, the meaning would not be impaired if the verb were made negative:

(12) In his French writings one does not find a single German word.

The SC translation is the same as in (7SC).

Such a construction with the negation of a single element (object) and with the non-negated verb is not possible in SC:

(13) *U njegovim francuskim napisima čitalac nalazi ni jednu njemačku riječ.

The use of ne before jednu would make the meaning contrary to that of the English sentence:

(14SC) U njegovim francuskim napisima nalazi se ne jedna njemačka riječ.

It may be expected then that the learner will tend to internalize only the pattern (12) and if we want him to master also the minor pattern (7) some attention will have to be paid to it, probably at advanced levels of proficiency.

7. A somewhat similar possibility is found in constructions with the verbs appear, seem, hope, suppose, think followed by the infinitive or a (that) clause. In such constructions we may have either the do-periphrasis with the mentioned verbs or not attached to the dependent infinitive or that-clause. In some cases the meaning does not seem to vary e.g.

(15) The child does not seem to be well.

(15SC) Ne izgleda da je djetetu dobro.
(16) The child seems not to be well.

(16SC) Izgleda da djetetu nije dobro.

As the examples illustrate the two types of negation are possible in SC with semantically and functionally corresponding verbs, however, of course, English has the do-periphrasis when one of the listed verbs are negated. The SC verbs allowing of the two possibilities are: misliti, nadati se, pretpostaviti etc.

Note also the patterns like:

(19) I think not.

(19SC) Mislim da ne.

where there is no do periphrasis because the negative element not belongs to the dependent (previously mentioned) infinitive or that-clause. A structurally identical pattern is found in SC. No interference is expected with the two patterns described.

8. The question without do as illustrated by (9) is highly stylistically marked as rhetorical or jocular. A similar example is:

(20) What say you to a walking tour?

(20SC) Što kažeš o jednom pješačenju?

Such examples are rare and of little importance in teaching.

A very common interrogative construction in American English is the one with how come:

(21) How come the boys did it themselves?

(21SC) Kako to da su momci to sami uradili?

Here how come is a question phrase.
b. Teaching problems

9. The more or less marginal patterns discussed here concern mainly advanced learners. Central problems connected with the teaching of the auxiliary *do* are those of introducing it in questions and negations, as that represents a problem of "total learning". After which a strategy has to be devised for unlearning its use in questions where the question word is the subject (*Who said it?*), and in indirect questions. The latter is one of the mistakes occurring again and again with very advanced learners.

NOTES

1. Repetition here means "code": *I have a home and so do you.*
2. I owe Mr. Wayles Brown the suggestion that *have to* should be taught before *must*.
3. Note that (31) cannot be expanded by e.g. "... than a bottle of wine" which is quite possible in the case of (32). In other words, *better* in (31) seems to have lost its function of a comparative as our translation (31SC) suggests. I am indebted to Mr. Wayles Brown for his help in formulating this distinction.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

RELATIVE PRONOUNS IN ENGLISH AND SERBO-CROATIAN

1. The E relative pronouns to be discussed in this paper are: WHO, WHICH, THAT, ZERO_RELATIVE, and WHAT. Their SC equivalents are mostly TKO, ŠTO, KOJI, ČIJL KAKAV, and KOLIKI, all functioning as relative pronouns.

2. The system of relative pronouns in E.

2.1. The relative pronouns who, which, and what coincide in form with the interrogative pronouns, and that with the demonstrative pronoun, though they are different in function. The pronoun who has distinct forms for the oblique case (whom) and the possessive case (whose). Which has a suppletive possessive form whose and no separate oblique form, while that and what are uninflected, and express various syntactical relations only by means of prepositions.

2.2. The position of the relative pronoun, or the nominal phrase containing the relative pronoun, is invariably at the head of a relative clause, unless it is preceded by a conjunction, preposition or numeratives like both, all, none, five, etc.

(1) He carried a chair which was almost as big as himself.
(2) They arrived a week ago, since which time we haven’t had a moment of peace in this house.
(3) The girls both of whom were quite pretty.
However, even with prepositions the above order is not obligatory, less formal allowing the preposition to be placed at the end of the clause (in back position).

(3a) The suit in which I fancied myself... or
   The suit which I fancied myself in...

If the pronoun is who in its oblique form, the stem form is often preferred when the pronoun is not immediately preceded by the preposition:

(4) But how could one shoot a man at whom it was so easy
to laugh?
   But how could one shoot a man whom it was so easy to
laugh at?
   But how could one shoot a man who it was so easy to
laugh at?

2.3 Relative pronouns are used to link relative clauses to the principal clause, but, unlike conjunctions, they refer to an antecedent, usually a noun, pronoun, or clause.

(5) The man who came yesterday...
(6) I, who am your best friend...
(7) I saw her, who they said had disappeared.
(8) The watch is her father's, whose temper is well known.
(9) They don't like yours, which is superior to theirs.
(10) He sent them all away, which was a foolish thing to do.

2.3.1 WHO is used with antecedents referring to persons, and similarly
whom and whose, the latter of which can be also used with inanimate referents. Who (whose and whom) occurs in restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses.

(11) I wish I knew the man who wrote that book. (restr.)
(12) My father, who will be seventy tomorrow, is still a keen sportsman.
(13) A young woman whom he had never seen before ...
(14) Two or three men whose names he knew ...
(15) ... democratic equality among a population who were entirely unfit for it ...
(16) ... there was a world beyond ... these trees whose leaves were ... black.

As can be observed in example (15) who can occur with a verb in plural if the antecedent is considered to mean plurality.

2.3.2. WHICH usually refers to non-human antecedents or a clause:

(17) She gave me a look which was coquettish.
(18) The decision was postponed, which was exactly what he wanted.

It can refer to human antecedents if their quality is thought of rather than the person:

(19) He looked like a lawyer, which he was.

Like who, which can be used in both restrictive and non-restrictive clauses:

(20) The task which confronted him had to be faced alone. (restr.)
(21) Westminster Abbey, which is one of the oldest churches in Great Britain, contains the graves of many famous Englishmen. (non-restr.)

Which can also be used attributively:

(22) He bought the Times, which newspaper he always reads.
(23) It rained all night and day, during which time the ship broke in pieces.

2.3.3. THAT is a universal relative, referring to human and non-human antecedents, especially if the antecedents are mixed. However, it much less commonly refers to persons than to things.

(24) There is no law that forces you ...
(25) His house and friend that you saw ...
That is an alternative for who and which, but more often for which, as who is preferred to that when the antecedent relates to a person. It has also been noticed that wh-pronouns can more frequently replace that (and the zero-relative - see below) than the other way round. Nevertheless, there are rules for the use of that (rather than which) that can be relied upon with pretty great certainty.

That is always used:

a. In elliptical constructions: The year that the war broke out.
   (Ellipsis of the preposition: in which)
b. When the personal antecedent denotes quality of character or kind of person: Fool that I was!
c. in expressions like: Mrs. Jones (Miss Smith that was).

That is generally used:

a. When the clause qualifies a preceding it, all, anything, and similar pronouns: They left all that was not particularly necessary for the trip.
   What was it that you wanted to ask?
b. When it refers to superlatives: He was the best cook that was ever employed by them.
c. When interrogative who or which occurs in the head clause:
   Who was it that came yesterday.

That also seems to be commonly used in the kind of clause which is between the restrictive and non-restrictive. Further, that seems to be more frequent in object function, in medial relative clauses (probably for stylistic reasons) and in short clauses.

2.3.4. Zero-Relative. The zero-relative pronoun is used as an alternative of that, except when that is the subject of the clause. The restrictions on the use of the zero-relative are similar to those placed upon that.
For which reason we prefer to consider it an alternative of that, rather than who or which, thus considering a replacement of the wh-pronouns by that necessary before alternation with the zero relative. If the zero-pronoun functions as a prepositional object the preposition is placed in back position:

(26) At least they get to do the work they like.
(27) It's the only thing you're sensible about.

2.3.5. WHAT is an independent relative, i.e. it does not refer to any substantival element. It can function as subject, object, predicative, and prepositional complement. What as a subject occurs with the singular of the verb, if the context does not require a plural.

(28) What is true of Korean sculpture is even more true of Korean painting.
(29) What I want are details.
(30) What you do with it is up to you. (subject clause)
(31) Then I remembered what I had to accomplish. (object clause)
(32) That wasn't what you wanted to see me about. (predicate)

What can be used also attributively:

(33) They gave us what money they had.

What can in the above examples be replaced by that which, an obsolete form in contemporary usage, though still to be found in grammars.

3. The system of relative pronouns in SC.

3.1. The SC relative pronouns coincide in form with interrogative pronouns, as is the case in E. They can be divided into two categories:

a. iko, što inflected for case only and used substantively, and

b. koji, čiji, kakav, koliki inflected for gender, number, and case, used attributively as well as substantively.
The relatives are used to introduce relative clauses, and can be preceded only by conjunctions and prepositions. They occur with antecedents which can be nouns, pronouns, and clauses.

3.2. **TKO**\(^{10}\) refers to human referents, i.e. nominal and pronominal antecedents in the nominative singular.

**ŠTO** refers to human and non-human referents, as well as whole clauses as antecedents.

**KOJI** (koja, koje) is used with all antecedents, singular and plural. In oblique cases it can be substituted by **što** followed by a personal pronoun in the oblique case. This is obligatory when the antecedent is in the nominative:

(34) žena što smo jela ... (koju smo vidjeli)

**ČIJI** is used to denote possession, and it is said to be restricted to antecedents in singular which refer to a male human. However, the usage of **čiji** for female, non-human, and even inanimate referents is on the increase:

(35) Otc šiji su sinovi ...
    Majka čiji su sinovi ...
    Žene čiji su sinovi ...
    Ptica čiji su jaja ...
    Drveče čije su grane ...

**KAKAV** and **KOLIKI** are used for all nouns in singular and plural, denoting quality or quantity respectively.

3.2.1 The relative pronoun **koji** (koja, koje) can be substituted by the adverbs **gdje**, **kako**, and the conjunctions **da**, **te** (the last in southern
dialects). Thus the relative clause proper is extendable into stylistically marked relative clauses.

(36) Vidjeli smo čovjeka koji radi...
   Vidjeli smo čovjeka gdje radi...
   Vidjeli smo čovjeka kako radi...
   nema vlasti da nije od boga...
   drvo iskopano kao korito, te voda ide njima...

4. Contrastive Analysis

4.1. On a small corpus of 1,000 relative clauses introduced by relative pronouns\(^\text{12}\), unconditioned translation probability shows the following equivalences:

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Note: Where no numbers are indicated it is because they are very insignificant.
non rel. - the construction is other than relative clause
WHO being a relative referring to humans, and only occasionally to domestic animals, will in SC have as most probable equivalents *tko* and *koji*, and less frequently *sto*. *Koji*, having the widest range of antecedents, accordingly occurs as translation equivalent in most of the cases (see 4.1.). *Tko* is limited to use with singular antecedents, particularly if they are indefinite pronouns (in E also nouns preceded by the indefinite article):

(37) Those who believe in heaven on earth are creating hell.

(37SC) Oni koji veruju u nebo na zemlji stvaraju pekao.

(38) It would be unwise to antagonize a man who can help him.

(38SC) Bilo bi nerezumno dodi u sukob s nekim tko mu može pomoći.

*Sto* is even more limited and is invariably substitutable by *koji*.

(39) Leddersford is a place where they don't like people who put on airs.

(39SC) Leddersford je mjesto u kojem ne vole ljude što se prave važni.

Free translations of *who*, where the relative and verb are omitted, so to say, from the sentence, and the noun phrase agrees in case with the antecedent, are frequent.

(40) ... the Tory candidate was a relative of the Torvers, who owned the biggest firm in Dutton ... 

(40SC) ... konzervativni kandidat bio je rodjak Torverovih, vlasnika najvećeg poduzeća u Dufftonu ...

WHOM, being an oblique case form, will have as SC equivalent *koji* or *tko* in various oblique cases. In many instances it is difficult to say which of the two relatives is used, because they coincide in form (e.g. *koga*, *kojega/kog*a). *Koji* is naturally more frequent, being applicable to all genders and both numbers.
(41) I'd have to soft-soap people whom I despised.

(41SC) Morao bih ugadjati ljudima kojima preziram.

(42) She discovered that she didn't want to see anyone whom she knew or knew me.

(42SC) Ustanovila je da ne želi vidjeti nikoga koga poznaje ili tko poznaje mene.

*Whom* preceded by a preposition is paralleled by *koji* and preposition.

(43) I tried to think of Alice just as the person I loved, the one with whom I could be kind ...

(43SC) Pokusao sam misliti na Alice samo kao na ženu koju volim, kao na ženu prema kojoj sam mogao biti ljubazan.

*Whose* is in more than a half of the cases translated with *čije*, even in reference to non-human antecedents, without exception. The rest are free renderings which show no patterning.

(44) He became again the small dealer he really was whose pension would never be sufficient.

(44SC) Opet bi postao mali trgovac, što je u istini i bio, čija renta nikad neće biti dovoljna.

(45) There was a world beyond the slag heaps and these trees whose leaves were always coated black.

(45SC) Iza brda troske i iza drveća, čije je fišće ...

4.2.2. WHICH. In most cases *which* is translated with *koji*, invariably so with non-human antecedents, and in a number of cases with *što*, mainly when the antecedent is a whole sentence or when it is an indefinite pronoun.

(46) He carried a chair which was almost as big as himself.

(46SC) Nosio je stolico koja je bila skoro isto toliko velika kao i on.

(47) I went over to the little group which looked more and more impregnable and dangerous.

(47SC) Pošao sam prema mašćem plini, koja je dobivala sve više i više neosvojiv i opasan izgled.
(49) It dealt with a very charming upper-middle-class family the members of which nearly committed adultery.

(49SC) Pokazivao je neku vrlo dražesnu gradjansku obitelj, čiji članovi malo te ne počinjale preljub.

(49) We were expected to work all the time, which appears reasonable enough.

(49SC) Od nas se očekivao da radimo cijelo vrijeme, što je doista logično.

(50) Something which was uncompromisingly real...

(50SC) Nešto što je bilo neumornovo stvarno...

*što can also be the equivalent of which when it occurs with human antecedents, but refers to the quality of the person.*

(51) He became again the small dealer which he really was.

(51SC) Opet bi postao mali trgovač, što je u istini i bio...

In several examples which accompanied by a preposition (mostly suggesting place: in, at, with) has as an equivalent gdje:

(52) Wormold reached the undistinguished block in which Hasselbacher lived.

(52SC) Wormold stiže u neugledni blok zgrada, gdje je stanovao Hasselbacher.

A large percentage of the which sentences are translated more freely, exhibiting, however, some regularities. Restrictive clauses can occur with other than exactly corresponding relatives like kakav in:

(53) An illuminating insight ... may be obtained by examining the parts which they played...

(53SC) Poučan uvid u karakter ... možemo dobiti, ako razmotrimo kakvu su ulogu odigrali ...;

Non-restrictive relative clauses which stand as appositive elements are frequently introduced by conjunctions i or a (which possibility exists in E as well, but is not preferred to clauses introduced by relative pronouns) and various adverbial constructions.
4.2.3. Zero-Relative. The zero-relative represents the omission of that and has no zero equivalent in SC, where it is paralleled by all SC relative pronouns. In our corpus a half are translated by koji, about 30% by što, an occasional kakav and koliki, and in the eastern variant quite frequently with an object clause introduced by da, the antecedent of the E sentence functioning as subject in the SC object clause.

Koji is used with human and non-human antecedents. It stands for the zero-relative when the antecedent is in object relationship to the verb in the restrictive clause, or if it is a predicative of the same verb. As said before (2.3.1.), it never occurs as subject of the clause:

(55) She's absolutely the best girl I've ever met.
(55SC) Ona je apsolutno najbolja djevojka koju sam ikad upoznao.

(56) There's one thing I don't understand.
(56SC) Ima jedna stvar koju ne shvaćam.

(57) He was indisputably a better person than the smooth character he is now.
(57SC) On je neoporno bio bolji čovjek nego to ugljeno lice koji je on sada.

Što is used with pronominal antecedents, especially with indefinite pronouns and the singular neuter demonstrative pronouns ono, to, and also if the antecedent is a superlative.

(58) You can't get everything you want all at once.
(58SC) Ne možete sve što želite dobiti odjednom.
(59) "You've very good hearing". "Not for anything I don't want to listen to."

(59SC) "Imate vi vrlo dobar sluh." "Ali ne za ono, što ne želim slušati."

(60) That was the best we could get.

(60SC) To je bilo najbolje što smo mogli dobiti.

št also seems to be preferred if koji would have occurred in an oblique case, though it is likely that this is characteristic only of parts of the Western variant of SC, or even an idiosyncrasy of the particular translator.

(61) If you had to eat the food you cook you'd soon be thin.

(61SC) Da masa jesti hranu što (koju) je kuhaš, brzo bi omržavio.

in the case of pronominal antecedents it cannot be substituted by koji, while in most other cases the substitution is possible.

(62) *Ne možete sve što želite dobiti odjednom.* For everything you want

if sve is interpreted as the feminine or masculine accusative plural this is a grammatical sentence, but in that case it is the translation equivalent of the E everyone you want.

The usage of što with pronominal antecedents is on the whole more widespread than koji.

4.2.4. THAT is a relative pronoun used in restrictive clauses, preferably with non-human antecedents. in SC it is paralleled mostly by koji and što.

Koji is used for human and non-human antecedents in restrictive clauses.
(63) He was like a damnfool bulldog that has got his teeth into a man.

(63SC) On je bio poput nekog prokletog buldoga koji je zario zube u meso čovjeka.

(64) There was only one face that I wanted to see.

(64SC) Postojalo je samo jedno lice koje sam želio vidjeti.

što is normal with non-human antecedents or antecedents that are collective nouns denoting persons. It can usually be substituted by koji, unless the antecedent is modified by an indefinite pronoun, or is such a pronoun, or else the antecedent is the demonstrative ono.

(65) She used to know everything that went on in Dufton.

(65SC) Ona je znala sve što se događa u Duftonu.

(66) These two possessed the things that Prewitt valued.

(66SC) Ti su dvjeca imala ono, što je Frewitt cijenio.

in free versions it seems that often the relative + verb phrase can be omitted, the nominal phrase following them, acting now as an adnominal adjunct.

(67) He unscrewed the top and poured all that there was into his glass.

(67SC) On odvrnu zapušač i nali sve što je bilo njoj u čašu.

Emphatic constructions with it is are frequently rendered without this introductory phrase:

(68) It was only our bodies that did these things.

(68SC) Samo su naša tijela činila te stvari.

The relative clause is then omitted too, the predicate of the E relative clause serving as predicate of the main clause in SC.

Adverbial clauses introduced by kao, kako, kada have also been noticed to be translation equivalents of E relative clauses introduced by that.
This that could likewise be replaced by relative adverbs of place and
time where, when in E, or by which and the corresponding
positions
on, at etc. Adverbs of manner how however, cannot alternate with the
pronouns in this way. That can here be replaced by the zero-relative too.

(69) At any rate, the one day that it rained was the day
that we got really stinkingly sozzled.

(69SC) Na svaki način, onaj jedini dan kada je padala kiša
bio je dan kad smo se svinjski opili.

(69a) ... the one day on which it rained ...

(69b) ... the one day it rained ...

(69c) ... the one day when it rained ...

4.2.5. WHAT is an independent relative, often being a substitute for that
which, an obsolete form (as mentioned in 2.3.5.) thus having as
translation equivalent ono što, and only occasionally koji and koliki,
which represent free renditions rather than proper equivalents.

(70) He didn't understand a word of what he said.

(70SC) On nije razumio ni jednu riječ koju je izgovorio.

(71) You always get what you want when you're young.

(71SC) Čovjek dobiva ono što želi, kad je mlad.
The demonstrative - relative, in SC ono, što, could here likewise
be the obsolete that which in E and students should not be encouraged
to use it.

(71a) ... You always get that which you want ...

4.2.6. WHOEVER, WHICHEVER, WHATEVER - WHOSOEVER, WHICHSOEVER,
WHATSOEVER. The wh-pronouns can be compounded with -ever, and
more literary -soever, thus resulting in independent indefinite relatives,
functioning as part of the main as well as of the relative clause:

(72) Whoever they asked gave them the wrong answer. (sentence: subject, clause: object)

(73) They reported whatever it was he did. (sentence: object, clause: object)

They function as relative pronoun and antecedent combined, and thus are matched by a substantival element in the main clause, and relative pronoun in the relative clause, if the meaning of the context is indefinite:

(72a) The person who(m) they asked gave them the wrong answer.

(73a) They reported the thing which he did...

Another parallel can be a relative clause with indefinite pronouns as antecedents (anyone, anything etc.):

(74) Whoever believes that is dreaming.

(74a) Anyone who believes that is dreaming.

The SC equivalents of the indefinite relatives are indefinite relative pronouns, which are also compounds or phrases. They are formed from the two types of relative pronouns

14 tko, što and koji, čiji, kakav, kolik, and -god, in phrases god follows the relative as a separate word, and so does the phrase mu drago, while bilo and ma precede:

tkogod, čtogod, kojigod, čijigod, kakavgod, kolikigod, tko god, što god, koji god etc., ma tko, ma što, ma koji etc., bilo tko, bilo što, bilo koji etc., tko mu drago, što mu drago, koji mu drago etc.,

The rules regarding the usage of the pronoun as regards referent parallel those for simple relative pronouns, e.g. whoever and whoever are used for human referents, having as equivalents in
SC tkožgod, ma tko, bilo koi, kakav mu drago etc., while whichever and whichever predominately refer to non-human referents and have as SC equivalents štogod, koji mu drago, bilo kakav etc. Whatever and whatsoever refer to the idea of the sentence rather than to an object, and are in SC matched by štogod or relative adverbs kakogod, ma kako etc.

(75) They're getting rough - whoever they are.
(75SC) Postaju surov ma ko da su.

(76) He won't be caught out whatever he does.
(76SC) Njega neće uživoti, ma što on učinio.

In our corpus however, other collocations than the above mentioned have been observed as well: whoever: ko su da su; bez obzira na to ko.

5. Teaching Implications

5.1. There are several advantageous circumstances for the SC learner of E as regards the systems of relative pronouns in both languages:

5.1.1. In the first place there is the fact that both languages have such systems as against some languages which may not have any relative pronouns.

5.1.2. Also, in both languages the relative pronouns can have the same form as the respective interrogative pronouns.

5.1.3. As in SC the nominal group containing a relative pronoun occupies the head position in a relative clause.

5.2. The differences and difficulties arising from them are likely to occur mostly at an intermediate level of learning, and are as follows:

5.2.1. The members of the Е and SC systems of relative pronouns differ in various respects:

a. In SC all the five members (tko, što, koji, kakav, koliki) coincide in form with the interrogative pronouns, while in E this is true
only of three (who, which, what) of the five members. They can be memorized as wh. pronouns, against that and the zero-relative which have no interrogative pairs.

b. While in E there is no pronoun that would correspond to SC kakav and koliki (which does not seem to create particular learning difficulties) there are no equivalents of that and zero-relative in SC. They can usually be substituted by which, and are more common in colloquial usage. There a pause in speech which marks non-restrictive clauses may not be sufficiently obvious to remove ambiguities, as the commas do in print.15

c. It is also important to notice that the adverb where in E cannot replace a relative pronoun in the way gdje does in SC, i.e. to refer to a substantival antecedent not denoting place.

(77) *I saw a man where (he) worked.

A similar mistake has been observed with how for kako:

(77a) *I saw a man how he worked.

5.2.2. The back position of the preposition is a feature of E that does not occur in SC relative clauses. This position in E is not obligatory, but extremely common in all non-formal usage, so that it is important that it be taught at intermediary level.

5.2.3. In connection with the previous point it should also be stressed that, with a preposition in back position, the oblique and possessive forms of who (whom, whose) are less common than the uninflected form. This is impossible in SC, and the obligatory usage of inflected forms in their mother tongue would probably induce SC learners to always use whom or whose with prepositions, even when they do not precede the pronoun.
5.2.4. On basis of their reference to human antecedents, and particularly because of their equivalence as interrogative pronouns, the pronouns who and tko are easily identifiable. They are equivalent in meaning, but they differ in frequency of usage. Who appears to be much more frequently used in E than tko in SC, where the most frequent relative, even for human antecedents, is koji.

5.2.5. Similarly what and sto can be identified on the same grounds as who and tko. The differences here are however, much greater. What is restricted to the use either without antecedent, or to antecedents that are whole clauses. Sto can be used with substantival antecedents as well. As sto is in SC associated with pronominal antecedents, especially with indefinite pronouns, what is often heard instead of that:

(78) *All what we know about him is ...
(78SC) Sve sto o njemu znamo je ...

5.2.6. The relatives with the widest distribution are which in E and koji in SC. Both can be used for human and non-human referents, but students should be warned not to use which for human antecedents as unrestricted as koji. Which can be used only when a limited number of persons are concerned, or when the quality of the person is thought of. In all other cases the equivalent of koji for human antecedents should be who. Further, koji cannot refer to a whole clause as which can. This may lead to a constant use of what, due to the identification of what and sto, sto being the SC relative referring to whole clauses. This may
not always be acceptable:

(79) *They all took their umbrellas what was a very good thing to do.

(79SC) Svi su uzeli kiloštane. Što je bilo dobro...

in this case, as in all those cases where which cannot be substituted by that which (or što preceded by ono for that matter), which should be used.

5.2.7. For the learner it is important that he should identify koji just as much with who (with human antecedents) as with which (with antecedents that have non-human referents), that and $ (in restrictive clauses). Što should be identified with which (most frequently) and what (only when the antecedent is a whole clause and that replaceable by that which, never with human antecedents). That and the zero-relative might tend to get neglected by the learner in favour of the more frequent relatives who and which, even in restrictive clauses. This need not be given too much importance, as it has been noticed that the wh-pronouns are much more used than it would appear without a more thorough investigation of the usage. That and the zero-relative are more colloquial and thus common in informal language.

5.2.8. The indefinite relative pronouns whoever, whichever etc. have only one single-word equivalent in SC (tkogod, štogod etc.), and even this word has a two-word alternative (tko god, što god etc.), so that the learner might happen to overuse their E two-word equivalents: anyone who, anything which:

(80) Anyone who wants a job can have it.
(Whoever wants a job can have it.)
This however, can create only stylistic monotony in the speaker’s usage.

In connection with this last point, it is to be expected that a SC speaker of E will use relative clauses to a much greater extent than a native E speaker would. This could be due to interference from SC where relative clauses are much more used than in E, matching such other E constructions as infinitives, gerunds, and participles, when functioning attributively. In order to avoid monotony and too great simplicity of expression, attention should be given to this problem at an advanced level of learning.

For a sentence like:

(81) On nije čovjek koji bi što uradio na pola.

besides

(81a) He is not a man who would do things by halves.

requires also the alternative

(81b) He is not a man to do things by halves.

Or:

(82) Djelojka koja je smiješila što je sladje mogla ...

(82E) a girl who was smiling her sweetest ...

a girl smiling her sweetest ...

(83) problem koji smo spomenuli

(83E) the problem which (that, §) we mentioned ...

the problem mentioned ...
NOTES

1. Relatives like as, but, than, though etc. are outside the scope of this paper for several reasons:

   a. Not all grammars deal with all of these items along with other relative pronouns. What is more, they prefer other labels for them (Jespersen: particles or conjunctions, Zandvoort: semi-relatives). Some grammars give restrictions on their function as relative pronouns (Scheurweghs says that they function almost like relative pronouns, and that they resemble relative pronouns, while Schibbye says that they are accompanied by a particular meaning).

   b. That and what are also sometimes termed relative particles, but they have other features in common with the indisputable relative pronouns, like reference to a substantival antecedent (who, which, that), same form as interrogative pronouns (who, which, what), use in attributive position (which, what). The most frequently included relatives (not relative pronouns) as and but, let alone other words sometimes included in the chapter on relative pronouns, cannot refer to a substantival antecedent in a simple relative meaning. As is, indeed, used in such a way, but only in dialectal and vulgar speech:

   (I) women as knew Tom
   (II) him as I have made mention

   When as and but occur in the standard language, they convey a particular meaning:

   as (only with such and same modifying the antecedent) has a comparative association (There are as good fish in the sea as ever came out of it).
   But can introduce relative clauses with a negative meaning (matching that ... not) (there wasn't a man in the barony but had a hundred songs in his head).

   c. Translation equivalents of as and but etc. would appear to be more frequently various adverbial constructions than relatives proper

   (III) I bought the same dress as you did.
   Kupila sam istu haljinu kao ti.
(IV) Such a nice trip as we made ...
Takav krasan izlet kao što je bio ...

(V) There was no one but knows ...
Nema nikoga a da ne bi znao (iko ne zna) ...

These relatives could be more appropriately incorporated under a heading including all relatives, i.e. adverbs like whenever, wherever, etc., which can frequently be substitutes for a construction with relative pronouns.

(VI) He went away the same way as he had come.
He went away the same way that he had come.
He went away whence he had come.

(VIb) Vratio se istim putem kako je i došao.
Vratio se istim putem kajom je i došao.
Vratio se istim putem odakle je i došao.

2. It is important to note that this coincidence occurs only in the written language, as the pronunciations of the two pronouns differ, the relative that being pronounced [št], the demonstrative on the other hand [št].

3. Who and that cannot have clauses as antecedents, and what refers only to whole clauses. Which can have both a word and a clause as antecedent.

4. Sometimes the relative pronoun in cases like this one appears to be felt as the object of the relative clause, which it really is not, and therefore it is found in the oblique case as well: "I saw her, whom they said had disappeared."

5. Restrictive relative clauses are such relative clauses which confine or limit the application of the antecedent, while non-restrictive relative clauses introduce a descriptive, independent fact, and are in loose relation to the antecedent. Hence non-restrictive clauses are separated from the main clause by a pause, in print indicated by a comma. (Curme: Syntax).

6. There is a tendency to use the uninflected form even in cases where the pronoun is not a prepositional object at all:

(VII) A young woman who he had never seen before ...


9. That is generally more frequent in the colloquial usage, while which is normal in formal and written usage.

10. Normally pronounced ko, in the eastern variant even spelt without "i".

11. In normative grammars "Dvojča koje su grane ..." (relative following the antecedent) is recommended as the only acceptable.

12. The corpus has been extracted for a diploma essay submitted to the Department of English, Arts Faculty, University of Zagreb, by Dj. Bradaška. It has been derived from three novels and their translations into SC: J. Braine "Room at the Top" (1957), G. Greene "Our Man in Havana" (1958), J. Jones "From Here to Eternity" (1951).

13. See zero-relative (4.2.3.).


15. The orthographic rule saying that non-restrictive clauses are marked off by commas, while restrictive clauses are not, is valid in SC as well.

16. See rules for the use of that (4.2.3.).

17. Quirk, ibid.

**BIBLIOGRAPHY**


NOUN PHRASES AS SUBJECT IN ENGLISH AND SERBO-CROATIAN

a. Criteria for defining subjecthood in English and Serbo-Croatian.

1. The relation "subject of a sentence" has not been defined unequivocally in existing English grammars. No single criterion for defining the relation has been found for several reasons. Grammarians tend to give precedence to agreement in number between the nominal element and the finite verbal phrase as the main criterion for defining "the subject of a sentence", though they never fail to add that position of the nominal element is as important. The majority try to evade the decision by combining both criteria.

1.2 There have been attempts to equate the subject of the sentence with the notion of agent or actor. It is easy to refute, by examples quoted from existing grammars, the equation of subject with the initiator of the action as the underlying (called "logical subject" by traditional grammarians) and surface subjects are not always in a one-to-one relationship.

(1) He suffered torture.
(2) He hurt his leg in an accident.
(3) This portion serves two people.

Moreover, there are sentences which have no "Underlying subject".

(4) The window has broken.
(5) It is raining.
1.3. Keeping in mind the purpose of our analysis, which is mainly practical, we must remain pretty close to the surface structure and limit ourselves to the consideration of the grammatical or surface-structure subject. Therefore we shall consider the subject of the sentence to be the noun phrase (we shall limit ourselves to noun phrase when speaking about concord) which functions in the verb number-and-person agreement rule. The lack of concord markers in verbs and the lack of inflectional suffixes in nouns which would distinguish the subjective from the objective case often makes it necessary to consider the place of the noun phrase as an indispensable criterion for determining subjecthood.

b. Place of subject

2. In statements the noun phrase functioning as "subject" precedes the finite verb phrase and selects its number in case there is a concord bearer in the verbal phrase. In equational sentences which have noun phrases as exponents of subject and of nominal predicate, it is not always easy to determine which noun phrase is the subject, as inversion often takes place. In English there is a tendency to treat the initial position as "subject territory". as the nominative before the copula is often the subject, it has become the rule to place the copula in accord with it, whether it be a subject or a predicate.

(6) "Her children (subject) are her sole care".
(7) "Her principal anxiety (predicate, but felt as subject) was her children".
(8) "The chief curse (predicate, but felt as subject) is taxes".

Though this moot question is not only of theoretical interest we shall not dwell on it any further, as word order and concord will be dealt
with In this project under separate headings.

2.1. In sentences introduced by existential there the noun phrase functioning as subject follows the verb and is in number-and-person agreement with it. The majority of existential sentences have finite forms of the verb be, which distinguishes more concord-bearing forms than any other verb in English.

(9) There was a cool breeze from the sea.

2.2. In relative clauses the noun phrase functioning as subject precedes the finite verb, but follows the relative pronoun if any.

2.3. A number of adverbial modifiers, usually of negative and restrictive meaning (scarcely, hardly, seldom, rarely, little, not, neither, never, by no means, at no time, etc.), when put in initial position, entail inversion in statements, so that the noun phrase functioning as subject takes the position between the first auxiliary and the rest of the verb phrase (involving the introduction of the auxiliary do if there is no other auxiliary in the verb phrase). In sentences introduced by existential there, inversion occurs between the first auxiliary of the verb phrase and there and the subject follows the there and the rest of the verb phrase if any.

(10) Scarcely had the child started when it began to rain.
(11) Never have the children seen anything like it.
(12) Nowhere is this phenomenon so noticeable as in the south.
(13) Nor was there any breeze from the sea.
(14) Nor will there be any breeze.
(15) Nor did there seem to be any breeze.

Inversion of subject and first auxiliary, with introduction of do if necessary, also takes place after some adverbial phrases whose first
element is only (only by chance, only then, only today, etc.).

(16) Only then did the girl realize her mistake.

2.4. Prepositional adverbs, such as away, down, off, out, up, etc., when put in initial position may cause inversion.

(17) Off went the car, up rose the other fellow.

2.5. A negated object when put in initial position entails obligatory inversion of subject and the first auxiliary of the verb phrase.

(18) Not a sound did the man make.

2.6. Inversion also occurs when non-negative adverbial modifiers are put in initial position (very often the noun phrase functioning as subject is long). In this type of inversion the subject is put after the whole non-transitive verb phrase (no do is introduced).

(19) Herein lies a distinction between the English and most Continental systems.

(20) On this doctrine depend all our civil and religious liberties.

(21) Half-way along it stood (or: was standing) an old-fashioned table with a chair behind it, and a rack holding four keys.

As this kind of inversion is not obligatory, being a stylistic device used mainly in written language, examples without inversion are also found.

(22) In a low room, sitting by a table, a dirty yellow and black rug on her knees, an old hag sat.

2.7. Inversion of this type occurs in sentences with the copula be if the nominal predicate which has the form of a prepositional phrase is put in initial position.
(23) Across one corner of this room was (or: had been) a curved counter, stacked with crockery and glasses and with shelves of bottles behind it.

(24) At the end of the building, against the outer wall of the restaurant, was an outside stairway, built of stone, leading to the rooms above.

2.8 With verbs of saying interrupting or following direct speech inversion of subject is optional.

(25) "I have been living here for ages", said the old man, "but I have never met this woman before".

(26) "You'll feel all right tomorrow", her husband said.

2.9 In conditional clauses where the conjunction is deleted, the noun phrase functioning as subject is placed between the first auxiliary and the rest of the verb phrase.

(27) Had my brother known the truth he wouldn't have helped them.

2.10 In certain exclamatory sentences in which the petrified subjunctive present tense forms or the analytical subjunctive forms (with may) are used, the subject follows the simple subjunctive form, or is placed between the auxiliary and the main verb if the form is analytical.

(28) Long live our President.

(29) May John live to repent it.

Exclamatory sentences beginning with how and what followed by an adverb of manner have optional inversion. But if the exclamatory word is deleted inversion of subject and first auxiliary is obligatory.

(30) How bitterly the girl regretted her folly.

(31) Bitterly did the girl regret her folly.

2.11 In questions the subject is placed between the first auxiliary and the rest of the verb phrase except when the subject is questioned.
(32) Did the boy bring the letter?
(33) Which boy brought the letter?

3. The subject in SC sentences is the noun phrase in the nominative case which functions in the verb number-person-and-gender agreement rule. As order among the main sentence elements is much more in SC than in E, concord is the principal criterion for determining subjecthood in SC. Even in equational sentences, where concord wavers in E, there is no hesitation in a SC sentence as to which nominal phrase selects the form of the verb, as order is not relied upon and there is no expectation like in E that the subject will be in initial position.

(34) Her principal anxiety was children.
(35) The chief curse is taxes.

There are some points that arise in connection with the concord between the noun phrase in the function of subject and the finite verb phrase which warrant mention, as they can be a source of negative transfer for a SC learner of E. The use of certain modifiers such as mnogo, pola, vecina and the numerals higher than four entails an oblique case in the rest of the noun phrase (no interference is envisaged from this fact on the part of the SC learner of English, whereas this would be a source of great difficulty for an E learner of Serbo-Croatian). Mnogo (being an adverb) modifies both countable and uncountable head nouns and is in agreement with a singular verb. Interference may be expected when mnogo has many (a great many, etc.) as counterpart in the E noun phrase.

(36) Mnogo dečaka je bilo otsutno. Many boys were absent.
Noun phrases containing the numerals dva, tri and četiri are in concord with a plural verb like in English, whereas concord wavers with pola, većina and the numerals higher than four, which is not the case with English counterparts.

(37) Tri devojke se ne slažu sa predlogom. Three girls do not agree with the proposal.

(38) Pola devojaka se ne slažu sa predlogom. Half the girls do not agree with the proposal.

(38a) Pola devojaka se ne slažu...

(39) Većina ljudi se medjusobno poštuj. Most people respect each other.

(39a) Većina ljudi se medjusobno poštuju.

(40) Deset kuća je uništena. Ten houses have been destroyed.

(40a) Deset kuća su uništene.

Negative transfer may result in E sentences which are not acceptable.

(41) *Half the girls doesn’t agree with the proposal.

(42) *Most people respects each other.

(43) *Ten houses has been destroyed.

3.2. We should also like to point out in passing that ambiguities may arise when the exponents of subject and object in SC are nouns where the nominative is not inflectionally distinguished from the accusative case.

(44) U takvim slučajevima glagol pratí objekt. In such cases the verb follows the object.

In such cases the object follows the verb.

4. The following are the most salient points of difference between the two languages which may result in interference for a SC learner:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Serbo-Croatian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of inflection in nouns which would help distinguish the subjective from the objective case.</td>
<td>A rich inflectional case system in which the form of the noun carries a heavy functional load.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Dearth of concord-bearing verbal forms.

Fixed word order among the exponents of the main sentence elements, order being one of the most powerful grammatical devices.

A much freer word order is contextually and stylistically determined and does not serve as a powerful grammatical device.

4.1. Another major source of interference is the cases where the subject of the E sentence and the subject of the SC sentence are not in a one-to-one correspondence (such cases are complicated by the fact that SC has sentences where there is no grammatical subject and the underlying subject appears in an oblique form).

(45) In certain cases the victims had their heads and limbs cut off. U nekim slučajevima žrtvama su odesene glave i udovi.

(46) John is easy to please. Jovanu je lako ugoditi.

(47) Mary is comfortable. Mariji je udobno.

(48) Mary is cold. (This sentence has two interpretations.) Marija je hladna. Marija je hladno.

(49) Mary has a headache. (This has two translation equivalents.) Marija ima glavobolju. Mariju boli glava.

(50) John was ashamed. Jovana je bilo stid.

In such and similar examples the SC learner’s errors are predictable. Such structures can be taught so that the global meaning is made clear, and they should be drilled until they become fixed and can be used automatically. Pointing out the fact that such sentences have the same deep structure in E and SC and that in many cases the surface structure of the E sentence is at a greater remove from the underlying structure than that of a SC sentence or vice versa is of no great practical value, though it may be of great interest for the linguistic theoretician.
4.2. As our starting point is E when dealing with noun phrases in the function of subject, we shall not consider those SC sentences where the subject is deleted. We shall assume that a deleted third person subject in a SC sentence has a personal pronoun as counterpart in the surface structure of an E sentence (though this may not be correct from the point of view of the generation of sentences).

(51) Does that small boy speak English?
    Yes, he does.

(52) Do those small boys speak English?
    No, they don't.

NOTES

1. Transformational grammar dispenses with the notions "subject", "predicate", etc. and uses, in the structural descriptions of the transformations, category symbols referring to phrase-types and word types. Chomsky (Aspects of the Theory of Syntax, Cambridge, Mass. 1965, 68-74) differentiates function and category, but argues that functions can be extracted directly from the rewriting rules of the base and that the mention of grammatical functions would be an unnecessary elaboration of the rules. Barbara Corey Hall (Subject and Object in Modern English, MIT 1965, unpublished dissertation, 11) on the other hand argues that there are syntactic relations which cannot be ignored as they are important for determining the semantic interpretations of related sentences (active and passive sentences being one of the examples at hand).


4. Britta M. Charleston (Studies on the Emotional and Affective Means of 
Expression in Modern English, Schweizer Anglistische Arbeiten, 46. Band, 
Bern 1960, 141) when discussing inversion in statements says. "The inversion 
of subject and verb, which places the subject at the end, whereas the hearer 
is expecting to be informed of the subject immediately at the beginning of 
the utterance, causes a certain "tension". Such tension is less emotional 
than affective. . . . . . . it is a fact generally accepted among grammarians 
and writers on the English language that the beginning and the end of the 
sentence are positions of greater importance ("peaks") than the middle 
("trough") . . . . . . . The present writer believes that it is in fact, neither 
beginning nor end as such, but the fact of the unusual, i.e. "abnormal", 
position that gives the affective value to the word(s) so placed, e.g. subject 
after the verb . . . . . . . etc."

5. Jespersen (A Modern English Grammar, Part VII, Copenhagen 1949, 80) 
says that inversion is in such cases determined by relative weight of 
subject, a short unstressed pronoun being usually placed between the 
adverb and the verb, so that no inversion occurs: Off he went.


7. and 8. Examples borrowed from G. Scheurwegh, Present-Day English 
Syntax, London 1959, 8.


10. Standard grammars of the SC language (A. Belić, O jezičkoj prirodi 
i jezičkom razvitku, Beograd 1941, 174-178, Brabee-Hraste-Živković, 
Gramatika hrvatskosrpskog jezika, Zagreb, 1968, 193; Mihailo 
great emphasis on notional criteria for defining "the subject of the 
sentence", calling it the focal point and the only independent word in the 
sentence. These arguments seem to have no practical relevance for our 
analysis.
11. This kind of ambiguity has no particular interest for us as our analysis is undirectional, though such examples from SC can be used when explaining the fixed word order in an English sentence to point out that free word order may result in ambiguities even in a highly inflected language like SC.

12. At least not for the linguistically unsophisticated learner. For university students it might indeed be of interest. We do not condemn the application of this procedure in contrastive analysis out of hand. There are structures in which it is very useful to point out the fact that the surface structure of certain SC sentences reflects the underlying relations of elements better than the English and vice versa, as Vladimir Ivir has illustrated in his paper Predicative Patterns of English Adjectives and Their Contrastive Correspondents in Serbo-Croatian, Reports 2, and as we shall point out further in our paper when dealing with certain complex noun phrases.
The Present Tense is used to locate a verb action in the present, past, or future time.

2. Present Tense for present-time verb action

1.1. The Present Tense answering the question "What are you doing?" (Absolute Present).

1.1.1. Most verbs in answering this question take the form "be+V-ing" (Continuous Present):

What are you doing? - I am reading (action in progress)

- I am working on my thesis (even if said during a walk)

- action occupying a limited time

The equivalent question "Što radiš?" in SC is mostly answered by an Imperfective Present

1.1.2. There is a considerable number of E verbs which cannot be used in answering the question "What are you doing?" These are mostly verbs indicating states, or actions, over which the subject has no control (mostly the so-called "Private Verbs" - verbs standing for states or actions of which only the speaker is aware), such as see, hear, feel, love, hate, think, understand, believe, forget, mean, seem, appear, recollect, remember, smell, belong, possess, desire, detest, hope, like, concern, wish, want, matter, suit, etc.

As soon as the control of the subject becomes possible, the verbs...
can take the continuous form:

Now I think that I was wrong

as against:

I am thinking of going to Italy next summer

Most of the SC equivalents of these verbs cannot very well be used in
the answer to the question "Što radiš?" Thus, the answer to this
question about the verb "ljubiti" (love) is "Ljubim je" in the sense
"I am kissing her" rather than "I love her."

1.1.3. The verb to be is used in the continuous form when the subject is
presented as performing some sort of activity:

He is being nasty/a bastard

"Joe," I said, "you are just being foolish."

When a state is implied, to be takes the simple form:

I am hot/a man

Other verbs taking the inflexional ending -n't in most of their
meanings cannot be used in the Continuous Present.

1.1.4. The Simple Present can be used for the Absolute Present when the
words coincide with a series of actions:

I place the rabbit in the box and close the lid (a magician performing
a trick)

The Continuous Present is quite possible.

In this situation, also SC can use the present of a perfective verb
for the Absolute Present:

Stavin' kunića u kutiju i zatvorim poklopac

The Imperfective Present (stavljam, zatvaram) is also possible.

1.1.5. Similar to this Simple Present for the Absolute Present is the
Present found in stage directions:

He stirs the fire, trims the lamp, arranges some books and papers,
sits down, is restless, shivers slightly, clock outside strikes
twelve, and he settles to read. Enter the convict stealthily, he
has a long knife and seizes the Bishop from behind.

1.1.6. The Simple Present is used in photograph captions:

The troops enter the village.

1.1.7. It is also found in exclamatory sentences introduced by here or there:

Here comes the bride!
There goes our train!

SC will most likely render this construction by "evo" or "eno" with an Imperfective Present or no verb at all:

Evo dolazi mlada/Evo mlade
Eno odlazi naš vlak (or, more vividly, the Aorist of result: "Eno, ode naš vlak")

1.1.7. Verbs involving the act of speaking express the coincidence by the Imperfective Present in SC and by the Simple Present in E:

Kunem se da sam nevin : I swear that I am innocent
Proglagavam sastanak završenim: I declare the meeting closed
Krešim ovaj brod ... : I name this ship ...
I pronounce you man and wife
I call it an outrage

1.2. The Present Tense not answering the question "What are you doing?" (Relative Present).

To express the Relative Present, E mostly uses the Simple Present:

I wash my hands every day

SC employs either the Perfective of the Imperfective Present:

Perem/Oprerem ruke svaki dan
The Perfective Present mostly denotes an action which takes place at repeated intervals:

Napišem pismo svaki dan: I write a letter every day
Zapjeva svakih pet minuta: He bursts into a song every five minutes.

In this situation E uses the Simple Present.

1.2.1 In SC the Imperfective Present covers the meaning of the E Continuous and partly also that of the E Simple Present. For this reason, the Imperfective Present will be a strong source of interference because the SC speaker will consistently tend to use the E Continuous Present as its equivalent. This equation of the Imperfective Present with the Continuous Present is due to the fact that the Perfective Present only exceptionally has the value of the E Continuous Present.

1.2.2 The question "Što radiš?" is of no great help to the speaker of SC in deciding whether a SC Imperfective Present will have in E the Continuous or the Simple Present as its equivalent. The SC question has only one verb form as against two possible verb forms in the equivalent E question: "What are you doing?" and "What do you do?" SC can come closer to the meaning of the E question containing the Continuous Present by the addition of such adverbs as "sada" (now), "ovog časa" (at this moment), and similar; the question "What do you do?" can be best rendered by the addition of an adjunct of indefinite time (adverb of frequency), such as "obično" (usually), "često" (often), etc.
SC Što radiš? Što obično radiš? Što sada radiš?
Slikam Slikam Slikam
E $ What do you do? What are you doing?
I paint I am painting

With transitive verbs, the number of the object is often useful in deciding which form should be used in E:

Čitam knjigu : I am reading a book
Čitam knjige : I read books

In general, probably the most useful hint for the use of the Continuous-present phrase for the Absolute Present is the inclusion of the moment of the realization of the action indicated by the verb; whether this moment is explicitly stated (He is writing now. I am not kidding when I say that.) or only implied (I am reading, with now implied).

b. Present Tense for past-time verb action (in a past-time context)

2. Historic(al) Present

Soon there is a crowd around the little prostrate form, the latest victim of reckless speeding. A strong man holds the little fellow in his arms. The crowd makes room for the little woman who cries out, "Give me my boy!"

The present Tense of SC imperfective and, especially, perfective verbs is very frequently used for past time:

Onda on $đe/ulazi u sobu : Then he entered the room

The Perfective Present (Narrative Present) in SC is much more frequent for the past-time period than the E Present, which in this function is stylistically marked. The Perfective Present is hardly likely to prompt a speaker of SC to use the E Present as its
equivalent, as his language feeling will in most cases interpret the
Perfective Present as referring to the past, particularly in the
third person where, with a large number of verbs, it is homophonous
with the Aorist. The Imperfective Present is more likely to be
rendered as Present in E where a past tense would be the unmarked
form, although also here the past-time context will probably lead to
the selection of the E Preterit in most cases. The past-time con-
text is particularly prominent in the Annalistic Present (the one
registering historical events) which is always imperfective in SC:

It is not till the close of the Old English period that Scandinavian
words appear: Skandinavske se rijeci javljaju tek krajem staro-
engleskog razdoblja

The Annalistic Present is quite frequent also in E.

2.1. The SC Perfekt refers mostly to the same time-sphere as the E
Preterit. The same time-sphere is covered also by the SC Present,
in main and dependent clauses, with the result that the SC speaker
can often translate his Perfekt and Present into E as the Preterit.
What frequently happens is that the Perfekt is erroneously translated
as the Present Perfect, and the Present, if it is not mistranslated
as the Present, is correctly translated as the Preterit. The reason
for the wrong translation of the Perfekt is the formal similarity of
the two verb phrases, both of which consist of an auxiliary verb
followed by a participle. An additional reason probably lies in the
similarity of labels: Perfekt - Present Perfect. The SC Historic
Present will most likely have the Preterit as its E equivalent, because
of its obvious past-time import in a past-time context, and its resemblance to the form of the E preterit, both being non-phrasal and both consisting of a base followed by a morpheme, or, occasionally in E, a base incorporating a portmanteau morpheme. Thus, the SC equivalent of the E sentence, in a past-time context, "He saw him" is either "Vidi (Prezent) ga" or "Vidio ga (Perfekt). The SC sentence "Vidi ga" (He saw him), containing the Narrative Prezent, the SC speaker may render into E as:

a. "He sees him", with the stylistically marked Historical Present for the unmarked Narrative Prezent;

b. "He has seen him", with the Present Perfect erroneously interpreted as an equivalent of the Perfekt, which is mostly a past tense, because of the similarity of names. This equivalent is less likely because of the formal difference between the SC verb form and the E verb phrase.

c. "He saw him", with the Preterit because the linguistic feeling of the speaker has interpreted the Narrative Prezent as belonging to the past-time sphere, and the formal similarity of the two verb forms has prompted him to select the Preterit, rather than the Present Perfect as the, erroneous, equivalent of the SC Perfekt. Of course, the learner's theoretical knowledge of the use of E tenses is a considerable help.

If the original SC sentence runs "Vidio ga je" (He saw him), with the Perfekt, the SC speaker will either draw a wrong parallel between the similarity of names and forms and come up with

He has seen him

or will produce the correct translation containing the equivalence "Perfekt : Preterit":

He saw him.
Of course, the learner was not, until the advent of contrastive linguistics, aware of the equivalence "Perfekt : Preterit". If he used the correct Preterit, it was because of what he had been taught about the use of the Preterit in E, without any reference to the situation obtaining in his mother tongue; and if, on the other hand, he used the Present Perfect, wrongly, it was because of his own spontaneous contrastive analysis which made him forget the "rules". Contrastive linguistics happily combines the rules for the use of language forms in the foreign language with the forms occurring in the equivalent situations in the learner's own language.

2.2. Another SC Present is a very frequent cause of wrong equivalence. It is the Present in the dependent clause to express the identity of the time sphere of the dependent clause with that expressed by the verb in the main clause. This "Dependent Present", used exclusively of Imperfective Verbs, is seen in:

Znao sam da je dobar

where the present "je" in the dependent clause refers to the same period as the Perfekt (E Preterit) "znao sam" in the main clause. The learner's most spontaneous translation of this Present into E is I knew that he is good.

2.3. The Historic Present can easily be substituted by a past tense (mostly by the Perfekt in SC), so that the feeling of its "pastness" is rather prominent. But the Dependent Present cannot be substituted by a past tense without affecting the time relation between the verb in the main and that in the dependent clause. The substitution of a past...
tense for the Dependent Present assigns the action of the verb of
the dependent clause to a before-past time period. Thus, the meaning
of the Perfekt "je bio" in "Znao sam da je bio dobar" is the same as
the meaning of the E Past Perfect Tense "had been" in "I knew that
he had been good." For this reason, the Dependent Present, with
its meaning of simultaneity, is more often mistranslated into E
than the Historic Present. The use of the Present Tense for a past
action in SC is a normal, unmarked way of expressing past actions
in a past-time context, often alternating with a past tense. For this
reason, the teacher will do well to ignore the Historic Present in E
altogether, because of the very real danger that it would only
strengthen the already strong tendency of the SC speakers to use the
Present Tense in E sentences where the context, and syntax, would
require a past tense. In this way, one of the English stylistic devices
will be lost, but then what foreigner can dream of mastering English
to such an extent that he could stop struggling with grammar and
vocabulary and start thinking of the refinements of style? The
process of acquiring a foreign language, like that of translation, is
one of simplification.

2.4. The Present is frequently used to introduce a quotation, etc., from
an author:

Homer says that...

Darwin thinks that natural selection is the chief factor in the
development of species
In object clauses, the Present following a past-tense verb in the main clause indicates the speaker's endorsement of the statement contained in the object clause:

He believed that the earth is a globe

A past tense would be neutral as to the truthfulness of the statement. SC will here use the Imperfective Present (or, of course, the Perfekt).

2.5. The Relative Present is expressed by the Continuous Present in emotional statements containing the adverbs always, continually, for ever, and similar containing the idea of very frequent, or uninterrupted, repetition:

Your mother is for ever refusing to do something or other
You're always seeing something strange

Even verbs which usually do not take the continuous form take this form in this emotionally colored use.

c. Present Tense instead of the Present Perfect

3. The verbs which mean the acquirement of a piece of information (read, hear, learn, understand) often appear in the Present Tense instead of in the Present Perfect Tense to impart to the information so gathered the meaning of actuality:

We see in the paper that you are going to Europe soon
SC, in this situation, will make use of the Imperfective Present, that is the verb form which is typically used for the Absolute Present, to achieve the same meaning of present actuality.
With the loss of the meaning of actuality, the Perfective Perfekt can be used. E will have the Present Perfect:

Čujem/Čuo sam da je odličan vojnik: I hear/have heard that he is a damn good soldier

d. Present Tense for future-time verb action

4. In a future context, the Present is often employed with a future meaning.

4.1. "The future happening is considered as something definitely settled, something that one has planned to do, there usually being an adjunct of future time to make the reference to the future more intelligible" (G. Sheurweghs, p. 320).

The Continuous Present:

I am sleeping here tonight
Are you dining anywhere tonight?
I am seeing him again this evening

4.2. The Simple Present is used for some future event that is fixed as part of a set plan:

The next term begins in September. Slijedeći semestar počinje u rujnu

It is also used for a future action which will be the direct consequence of the fulfillment of another future action:

If you move, I shoot: Ako se malnoš, pucam

The Simple Present is used also in situations where the Continuous Present is equally possible:

Princess Margaret, who leaves next week to tour East Africa,
In this usage, the Simple Present implies a plan of somebody other than the subject, whereas the Continuous Present presents the plan as the subject's own.

SC can also use the Present Tense for a future event. This "Prophetic Present" is the most frequent with verbs which in their imperfective form are not usual in the Future Tense, though it may occur also with other verb types:

- Dolazim sutra (Dolazit će sutra)
- Za nekoliko minuta završava se prvi čin (Završavat će se)
- Škola počinje u rujnu (Počinjavat će)
- Večeras svira naš čuveni violinist (Svirat će)
- Iduće nedelje drži predavanje ministar prosvete (Držat će)

In all these examples, the future time is indicated contextually.

Although this way of expressing the future time is largely similar in the two languages, speakers of SC seem to prefer the Future Tense in E (with the curious exception of the verb to leave). This is probably due to the preference, generally found in all foreign speakers, for monosemia - one form for one meaning.

1.3. The Simple Present is the usual verb form in temporal clauses and in conditional clauses of reality. SC will have here either the Perfective Present or the Imperfective Futur Egzaktni:

- We shall have to rid ourselves of a lot of prejudices before that becomes possible. Morat ćemo se riješiti mnogih predrasuda prije nego što to postane moguće
Be good and obedient and I’ll see you when the clock strikes twelve on Christmas Eve: Budi dobar i poslušan pa ću te vidjeti kad sat bude udarao pomoć na Badnjak.

If you move, I’ll shoot. Ako se makneš/budeš micao, pucat ću.

4.4. The verb “to wish” introducing a rejected condition has several equivalents in SC:

1. wish I had fixed the fence: Volio bih da sam popravio ogradu
2. wish I could go: Kad bih samo mogao ići
3. wish I had seen him: Da sam ga barem vidio.

4.5. The phrase “be going to” combines the meaning of futurity with that of

a. intention: I am going to walk to Geisingen; from there I shall go by train to Engen
   What are you going to be when you are grown up?

b. determination: I am going to put my foot down on that!

c. immediateness: Look out! I’m going to shoot

d. a result with the implication of the certainty of fulfilment: This show is going to attract a good deal of attention.

SC uses the Future in these situations. For this reason, the speaker of SC will use the Future Tense here and produce grammatical sentences (I’ll walk ..., What will you be ...) lacking the model overtones of the E phrase.

When the main verb is "(u)činiti" or (ot)ići" it may be deleted:

What are you going to do with that moose? Što ćes (učiniti) s tim losom?
NOTES

1. A perfective or imperfective present without any appreciable change of meaning is used for the Absolute Present in negative-interrogative sentences:
   
   Zašto sad ne pjevaš/zapjevaš?

2. It is hard to distinguish verbs standing for an action from those standing for a state. The verb "to run", for instance, seems to indicate an action, but it obviously indicates a state in "The wall runs from one house to the other". In general, the verbs involved here come closer to meaning a state than to standing for an action.

3. This term, as used here, covers all cases of the Present Tense used for a past-time action and substitutable by a past tense proper. The Narrative and the Annalistic Present are considered only subtypes of the Historic Present. The Dependent Present is not comprised under this term.

4. The Perfective Present is more likely to be interpreted as referring to the past because in indirect speech it is obligatorily substituted by the Perfekt whereas the Imperfective Present remains unchanged in this situation:

   Dobro uradi (Perfective Present) svoj posao: He did his work well
   Znao sam da je dobro uradio (Perfective Perfekt) svoj posao (the Perfective Present "uradi" is ungrammatical): I knew that he had done his work well
   Dobro radi (Imperfective Present) svoj posao: He does (is doing, did, was doing) his work well
   Znao sam da dobro radi (Imperfective Present) svoj posao: I knew that he did (was doing) his work well
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