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**COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF STRUCTURES WITH IMPERSONAL MEANING IN THE SPANISH LANGUAGE AND IMPERSONAL STRUCTURES IN THE FRENCH LANGUAGE**

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**Abstract**

In this article, the authors comprehensively analyze the ways of expressing impersonality in the Spanish language and determine the principal similarities and differences between structures with impersonal meaning in the two closely related languages: French and Spanish. There is a number of difficult theoretical issues connected to the analysis of impersonality in the Spanish language: active and passive elements in the meaning of the verb, the role of the pronominal verb form, the notion of indefinite personal and impersonal structures, the role of the pronoun uno, semantic features of infinitive and gerund usage.

**Keywords**

Impersonality – French language – Spanish language – Grammatical system

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## Introduction

The category of impersonality and the substance of this notion have attracted the attention of specialists from various linguistic fields. The concept of impersonality in the Spanish language is less thoroughly developed compared to other languages, in particular, Russian and French that have some premises of the impersonality theory that can be applied to Spanish material.

It is well known that impersonal structures in Latin were one-member. The development of French impersonal sentence was marked by the transition from a one-member to two-member sentence (pluit → il pleut). The new structural model of an impersonal sentence (il pleut), which is easier to perceive in the framework of a personal sentence as a special version of it or a known exception from it, creates a range of structural types that are on the brink between a personal and an impersonal sentence (il arrive du monde).

## Methods

In this work, we utilized the methods of structural and functional analysis that allowed us to define grammatical and semantical features of an impersonal structure, as well as the method of comparison and contrast that enabled us to identify the similarities and differences in the functioning of this structure in the French and Spanish languages. The methods of continuous sampling and quantitative estimation were also used in the conducted study.

## Results and discussion

The main criteria for impersonal sentence identification in the French language are the form of subject expression and the semantic status of the verb, which mainly determines the distinction between personal and impersonal sentences.

There are several points of view regarding the expression of the subject in impersonal sentences with the structure “subject – predicate – object (object clause)”.

When considering an impersonal structure in the context of thematic-rhematic segmentation, it is understood that the impersonal structure is its “sujet de phrase”<sup>6</sup> which means that it expresses something known and serves to “prédicat de phrase” – something previously unknown and expressed by the nominal component. Particular attention is given to the impersonal structures “il y a” and “il est”. When it joins almost any nominal group, the structure “it y a” forms an utterance that expresses the fact of existence or presence of the object expressed by the nominal group. The structure “il y a” is viewed as the actualizer of the predicate of the utterance. Martinet illustrates this by the example “il y a des gens sur la place” where “il y a” introduces the predicate of the utterance “des gens”.

According to linguists, the structural foundation of a sentence is comprised of its principal parts, but the semantic load may be carried by the secondary parts instead. The coordination of the principal sentence parts forms the predicative center of the sentence, the support point that the sentence is built upon.

In modern French grammar, the notions of personality and impersonality are used to characterize verbs, as well as to define syntactical structures. Therefore, the term “impersonality” is applicable to morphology and syntax<sup>1</sup>.

The issue of impersonal structures is considered just as thoroughly in Russian linguistics. Impersonality in Russian grammar has been examined within various scientific approaches: the psychological<sup>2</sup>, logical<sup>3</sup>, as well as historical-psychological and formal-grammatical approaches<sup>4</sup>.

An impersonal sentence in the modern Russian language is one of the most commonly used and the most structurally and semantically ambiguous types of one-member sentences.

Russian language specialists' general opinion can be reflected in the following definition of the impersonal sentence: “An impersonal sentence is a simple one-member sentence with a predicate that names such an action or a state that is presented without the involvement of the agent (the subject)”<sup>5</sup>

Impersonal sentences are semantically based on having no active agent (or feature carrier), as a reference to an agent (or feature carrier) may be present in a sentence but in such a way that does not allow a grammatical subject.

There are various classifications of impersonal sentences in Russian grammar. To determine the type of these sentences, researches consider the grammatical form of not only the main part (predicate) but also secondary parts.

As an example, one can cite A.M. Peshkovskii's classification. He distinguishes between types of impersonal sentences based on the grammatical form of secondary parts of the sentence.

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<sup>1</sup> N. M. Pipchenko, *Sovremennyyi russkii yazyk: Sintaksis slovosochetaniya i prostogo predlozheniya* (Minsk: BGU, 2008); A. Santomauro y P. Sharodo, *Vsya grammatika ispanskogo yazyka* (Mocsow: AST, 2010); V. A. Fedorov, *Problema lichnosti / bezlichnosti predlozhenii vo frantsuzskom yazyke*, *Innovatsionnye protsessy v lingvodidaktike. Collection of scientific works. Voronezh: FGBOU VPO Voronezhskii gosudarstvennyi tekhnicheskii universitet num 13 (2015): 4-11* y F. F. Fortunatov, *Sravnitelnoe yazykovedenie: Obshchii kurs* (Moscow: Krasand, 2010).

<sup>2</sup> V. A. Bogoroditskii *Vvedenie v izuchenie sovremennykh romanskikh i germanskikh yazykov: Posobie po sravnitelnomu yazykoznaniiyu* (Moscow: Labirint, 2003) y A. Bello, *Gramática de la lengua castellana. T. II* (Madrid: Arco/Libros, S. A., 2001).

<sup>3</sup> M. G. Gazilov y M. R. Gozalova, “Pozitsionnaya distributsiya chlenov predlozheniya vo frantsuzskom, angliiskom i ruskom yazykakh”, *Servis v Rossii i za rubezhom*, num 7 Vol: 54 (2014): 203-210.

<sup>4</sup> A. I. Makarova, *Sravnitelnyi analiz upotrebleniya soslugatelnogo nakloneniya v pridatochnykh dopolnitelnykh vo frantsuzskom i ispanskome yazykakh. Proceedings of the international scientific conference «Evolutsiya romanskikh yazykov: ot yazyka narodnosti k yazyku natsii»*. 2018. 118-123 y Ch. Fortineau, *L'expression de l'impersonnel en espagnol médiéval: le cas de omne. L'impersonnel. La personne, le verbe, la voix: du partage des fonctions et de leur sémantisme dans les structure impersonnelles* (Rennes: Presses Universitaires de Rennes, 2010).

<sup>5</sup> M. G. Gazilov y M. R. Gozalova, “Pozitsionnaya distributsiya chlenov predlozheniya vo frantsuzskom, angliiskom i ruskom yazykakh”, *Servis v Rossii i za rubezhom*, num 7 Vol: 54 (2014): 203-210 y O. V. Shcherbinina, *Mestoimennaya forma glagola na urovne paradigmاتي i sintagmatiki*. Ph.D. Thesis. Moscow. 2009

1. Various processes that take place within the human body that are expressed by a verb in the 3<sup>rd</sup> person (or in neuter gender if in the past tense) and a noun in accusative case or in different cases with different prepositions. For example: *Ruku tyanet* [nagging pain in arm], *pod serdtsem davit* [pressing pain under heart].

2. Disasters (natural or societal) expressed by the corresponding verb in the 3<sup>rd</sup> person (in neuter gender if in the past tense) and a noun in ablative case. For example: *Revolyuetsiei pakhnet* [revolution is in the air], *rekoj uneslo* [taken by the river], *dozhdem zalet* [will be flooded by rain].

3. An impersonal complex predicate comprised of an impersonal link verb and an impersonal predicative form ending in -o. For example: *bylo veselo* [was fun], *sdelalos grustno* [got sad].

4. An impersonal link verb “bylo – budet” [was – will be] + passive participle ending in -o. For example: *Pro batareyu Tushina bylo zabyto* [Tushin’s squadron was forgotten].

5. An impersonal (or personal with an impersonal meaning) verb + a noun in dative case (not always) + an infinitive. For example: *Imenno v takoi den sluchilos mne byt na okhote* [On that particular day I happened to be on a hunt].

6. Negative sentences with a personal transitive verb serving as an impersonal verb and with a governed noun in the genitive case. For example: *Ni oblachka na nebe ne brodilo* [Not a single cloud wandering in the sky].

7. Negative sentences with passive impersonal complex predicate and with a governed noun in the genitive case. For example: *A babei gluposti mery ne polozheno* [Women’s stupidity is beyond all measure].

8. A personal verb acting as an impersonal verb + quantitative adverb (or an equal prepositional-nominal combination). For example: *Mnogo myslei perebrodilo v ego golove* [A lot of thoughts have rambled in his head]<sup>6</sup>.

Other researches classify impersonal sentences according to the ways of expressing material and grammatical meanings. For instance, P.A. Lekant describes two ways of expressing impersonality:

1) Synthetic way. In synthetic impersonal structures, the material and grammatical meanings are expressed in the same lexical item in impersonal form.

2) Analytical way. In analytical impersonal structures, the material and grammatical meanings of the principal part are expressed separately, in two lexical units.

There is a common element in all structural options – an impersonal form with the same markers that is the principal way of expressing impersonality<sup>7</sup>.

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<sup>6</sup> N. M. Vasileva y L. P. Pitskova, *Frantsuzskii yazyk. Teoreticheskaya grammatika, morfologiya, sintaksis: uchebnik dlya vuzov*. 3<sup>rd</sup> edition, revised and expanded (Moscow: Izdatelstvo Yurait, 2013).

E.S. Skoblikova's classification is based on the ways of grammatical expression of the predicate in impersonal structures, "Meanwhile, all types of impersonal sentences are characterized by some common ways of expressing the main part and common features of grammatical semantics". We distinguish the following types of predicates used in impersonal sentences:

1. a notional verb in impersonal form;
2. a word of the category of state (in different terminology – an impersonal-predicative adverb or an impersonal predicative expression);
3. a word of the category of state or an auxiliary verb in impersonal form + infinitive of a notional verb<sup>8</sup>.

Modern Russian language specialists (V.A. Beloshapkova, E.A. Bryzgunova, E.A. Zemskaya, etc.) establish two groups of impersonal sentences on a formal basis – the way of expressing the principal part of the sentence. Consequently, all impersonal sentences are divided into verbal and nominal<sup>9</sup>.

Along with the verbs that are semantically impersonal, personal verbs are used in structures with impersonal meaning.

The Spanish language offers a variety of structures with impersonal meaning where personal verbs are used. When personal verbs are used in impersonal meaning, they are in the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular. Semantically these verbs and their collocations used in structures with impersonal meaning could be divided into the following groups:

- 1) verbs (verb collocations) of being; =
- 2) verbs (verb collocations) of sense and perception;
- 3) verbs (verb collocations) of presence or appearance;
- 4) verbs (verb collocations) of movement;
- 5) verbs expressing modal relations.

The list of such verbs generally corresponds to the list of personal verbs used in impersonal structures in French. However, according to the analysis of the actual material, there is a number of peculiarities in the usage of the Spanish verbs from these semantic groups that are characteristic of structures with impersonal meaning. Below is the analysis of each of the semantic groups.

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<sup>7</sup> V. A. Bogoroditskii, *Vvedenie v izuchenie sovremennykh romanskikh i germanskikh yazykov: Posobie po sravnitel'nomu yazykoznaniiyu* (Moscow: Labirint, 2003) y I. A. Dyshlevaya, *Ispanskii yazyk. Prakticheskaya grammatik* (St. Petersburg: Perspektiva, 2010).

<sup>8</sup> A. I. Andreeva, *Sposoby vyrazheniya bezlichnosti v ispanskom yazyke*, *Voprosy kognitivnoi lingvistiki* num 4 Vol: 45 (2015): 126-128 y G. S. Gili, *Curso superior de syntaxis española* (Barcelona: Bibliograf S.A., 2000).

<sup>9</sup> N. M. Vasileva y L. P. Pitskova, *Frantsuzskii yazyk. Teoreticheskaya grammatika, morfologiya, sintaksis: uchebnik dlya vuzov* (Moscow: Izdatelstvo Yurait, 2013).

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1) Verbs of being (ser and estar) form collocations that denote the time of day.

For example:

*Despertó de pronto —aún era de noche— con la impresión de que alguien yacía a su lado. (C. Siglo)*

These structures with impersonal meaning are formed with the help of adjectives.

For example:

*Era muy temprano; Aún es pronto; Cuando llegué al colegio, pensé que era tarde. (O. Cornelia.)*

Moreover, the structures with impersonal meaning formed with ser and estar make it possible to use a noun:

*Una pinaza color borravino, Maga, y por qué no nos habremos ido en ella cuando todavía era tiempos. (C. Rayuela)*

*Era las madrugadas del lunes, habían dejado irse la tarde y la noche del domingo, leyendo, escuchando discos, levantándose alternativamente para calentar café o cebar mate. (C. Rayuela)*

In such structures as “*Ya es primavera*”, “*Eran los primeros días de agosto*”, “*Ahora son las fiestas*”, and “*Pronto serán las vacaciones*”, the nominal part and the verb do not always agree in number. Therefore, it is possible to differentiate between personal and impersonal structures.

For example, there are two options with expressions of time:

*Ya son las siete.*

*Ya es las siete.*

The first is forming a personal sentence, the second is forming a structure with impersonal meaning. The usage of both structures is acceptable in terms of the Spanish grammatical norm.

There is only a semantic difference between these options. The impersonal structure is used to specify the time and the personal structure is used to determine the time relative to the event that is taking place in the moment of speaking. Thus, the impersonal structure has the nature of generalization, whereas the personal structure sets the event against the given time.

According to the actual material, objects may denote the place where the action occurs or the sensations caused by these actions.

The group of verbs of sense and perception may include the verb *parecer* that often occurs in structures with impersonal meaning. The verb *parecer* in the impersonal meaning is used mainly in complex sentences as part of the main clause.

When speaking of verbs used in impersonal structures in French, it is worth noting, that their classification is built on basis of semantic-grammatical features.

One could undoubtedly say that all verbs used in impersonal structures in French are divided into two groups: impersonal verbs and personal verbs used in impersonal structures. Let us take a closer look at these groups:

1) Impersonal verbs.

To begin with, these are weather-verbs.

For example:

*– Il semble que j'inspire confiance, et puis avec l'imperméable, Seattle c'était imparable, il pleut trois cent soixante-cinq jours par an. (M. Levy. À Refaire)*

*Il est dix heures du matin et il vente dur en rade, quand le boatman lui-même apparaît par l'échelle de pilote, surgissant de l'abîme et ruisselant comme un subordonné de Neptune. (J.R. Bloch, 61)*

Impersonal verbs are often used in impersonal sentences expressing various processes in nature that are perceived by our sensory organs. In these sentences, the verb is used in a figurative sense.

For example:

*Les soirs de mai étaient doux et changeants. Il y flottait des parfums et de nouvelles averses, puis le ciel se tendait de velours sombre. (Gamarra Les coqs, 108)*

*...il s'élève un parfum détestable composé de cent odeurs et des cris composés de cent voix. (H.B. Gobseck, 395)*

*Il pleut dans mon coeur comme il pleut sur la ville. (Verlaine. OEuvres poétiques, 192)*

Similarly to Spanish, semantically impersonal verbs sometimes have a personal form. In personal sentences such verbs are used figuratively.

For example:

*Misères et deuils, vous pleuvez sur moi.*

*Eau, quand donc pleuvras-tu? (C.Baudelaire)*

The verb falloir is part of the group of impersonal verbs. In modern French, this verb is completely impersonal so it can be used only in impersonal structures.

For example:

*Mais il faudra prévenir le prêtre de notre retard. (L. Toutes ces choses, 24)*



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*Il faut que nous quittions Rome avant midi. (L. Toutes ces choses, 260)*

*Il faut toujours vous obéir, n'est-ce pas? (G.A. Je, 52)*

2) Verbs that have all three person forms can also be used in impersonal structures.

The verbs of this group can be subdivided into three categories:

A) Verbs that form impersonal collocations.

Avoir

This verb occurs in the impersonal phrase “Il y a” that denotes the existence or location of something.

For example:

*Il n'y a que nous quatre... (L. Toutes ces choses, 25)*

*Il y a des lecteurs qui postent ce genre de commentaires sur le site du journal? (M. Levy, À Refaire)*

Être

This verb can have several meanings:

- To denote time.

For example:

*Il est presque onze heures! Pierre, tu... (G.A. Je, 7)*

– *Il est vingt heures... (M. Levy, À Refaire)*

- When used with an adjective, the verb forms phrases denoting opinion or view on something (Il est juste, vrai, rare, évident, difficile, possible, nécessaire...).

For example:

*Il était important pour ma carrière qu'il me voie, c'est bien le prétexte invoqué pour que je t'accompagne à Berlin, n'est-ce pas? (L. Toutes ces choses, 281)*

*Il est fort possible que, pour ses services rendus, Ortiz ait bénéficié des faveurs de Febres. (M. Levy, À Refaire)*

*Il est vrai que je bénéficiais du plus absolu des effets de surprise... (N. Antec, 150)*

Faire

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The verb is used with adjectives or nouns (with or without article) and denotes natural phenomena, times of year. For example:

*Il faisait trop froid. (G.A. Je, 43)*

Plaire

It is used in expressions translated as “please” in the modern French is a collocation. For example:

*Chloé, Chloé, s'il te plaît... Fais-moi confiance. (L. Toutes ces choses, 7)*

B) Personal verbs used in impersonal structures.

This group includes intransitive verbs:

Arriver

This verb has the meaning “to happen”.

For example:

*Il nous est même arrivé de rester dans l'enceinte de l'aéroport. (G.A. Je, 136)*

*...il m'arrive encore parfois de les vivre. (L. Toutes ces choses, 299)*

*...il m'arrive encore parfois de les vivre. (L. Toutes ces choses, 299)*

*... s'il t'arrivait de penser à moi quand je pensais à toi... (L. Toutes ces choses, 306)*

Paraître, sembler

These verbs are normally used in the impersonal meaning in the main clause of a complex sentence.

This entire classification points to the conclusion that the impersonal structure is common in French and the verbs used in impersonal structures vary semantically.

Considering the impersonal structure as a whole, it is worth noting why a personal structure gets replaced by an impersonal structure. A personal structure, where the noun has both grammatical and semantical functions, has a lot of information about the action and the recipient. An impersonal structure makes the sentence neutral by delivering general information on an event, stating a fact.

In this case, the semantic-grammatical approach to each group of verbs used in impersonal structures indicates that most personal verbs used in impersonal sentences preserve their lexical meaning. Thus, a word that is lexically the same but put in certain syntactical conditions obtains an “impersonal” meaning.

While we conduct a contrastive analysis of impersonal structures in French and Spanish, it is worth noting that they have proper-impersonal verbs in common.

In particular, those are verbs expressing natural phenomena and structures denoting parts of the day.

For example:

1) *Il est trop tard. (L. Toutes ces choses, 277)*

*Pues es demasiado tarde. (Marc Levy es.)*

2) *-Viens, dit-il, il fait froid, tu trembles. (L. Toutes ces choses, 294)*

*-Ven -dijo-, hace frío, estás temblando. (Marc Levy es.)*

3) *Il fait très froid chez vous. (S.E. Prince.)*

*Hace mucho frío en este lugar. (ASE.es)*

There are some similar impersonal structures in French and in Spanish. First of all, those are impersonal structures with the verbs être – ser. For example:

*Lázaro, ya es tarde. (O.A. Lazarillo, 45)*

*Il était près de minuit. (S. Un peu de soleil, 32)*

Both in French and in Spanish, these structures have several meanings (time, state, emotions).

However, there is a discrepancy in number in some phrases. In French, the verb être is used only in singular to express time, whereas in Spanish, it is possible to use the verb in 3<sup>rd</sup> person plural.

For example:

*Il n'était pas encore huit heures... (L. Toutes ces choses., 258)*

*Aún no eran las ocho de la mañana... (Marc Levy es.)*

*Il était onze heures ce matin et, dans une heure, Ed présenterait Lucas à son associé, Antonio Andric, le président du groupe. (Sept jours, 65)*

*Esa mañana eran las once, y una hora más tarde Ed presentaría a Lucas a su socio, Antonio Andric, el presidente del grupo. (Siete Días)*

In this case, the Spanish counterpart of the French impersonal structure expressing time is a personal sentence where “las ocho de la mañana” becomes the subject so the verb ser agrees with it in number.

The structures “être/ser + adjective” are of the same type. These structures are fully alike.

For example:

être bien – ser bueno

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*J'ai decide qu'il serait bien pour ma carrière d'aller saluer notre futur rédacteur en chef. (L. Toutes ces choses, 260)*

*Tienes suerte, he decidido que sería bueno para mi carrera ir a saludar a nuestro futuro director de redacción. (Marc Levy es.)*

être contraire – ser contrario

*Il est contraire à l'étiquette de bâiller en présence d'un roi, lui dit le monarque. (S.E. Prince)*

*Es contrario a la etiqueta bostezar en presencia de un rey - le dijo el monarca. (ASE.es)*

être difficile – ser difícil

*Il est bien plus difficile de se juger soi-même que de juger autrui. (S.E. Prince.)*

*Es mucho más difícil juzgarse a sí mismo que juzgar al prójimo. (ASE.es)*

*qu'il est assez difficile d'enterrer son père et de se marier dans le même après-midi. (L. Toutes ces choses, 19)*

*...que es bastante difícil enterrar a un padre y casarse, todo en la misma tarde. (Marc Levy es.)*

être rare – ser raro

*Il est très rare qu'une montagne change de place. Il est très rare qu'un océan se vide de son eau. Nous écrivons des choses éternelles. (S.E. Prince)*

*Es muy raro que una montaña cambie de lugar. Es muy raro que un océano se quede sin agua. Nosotros escribimos cosas eternas. (ASE.es)*

être tôt – ser pronto

*Il était bien trop tôt pour se prononcer, la seule certitude était que le monde ne tournait plus très rond. (Sept jours, 28)*

*Era demasiado pronto para pronunciarse; lo único seguro era que el mundo ya no funcionaba muy bien. (Siete Días)*

être probable – ser probable

*Il était plus que probable que son associé s'oppose à ses nouvelles idées. (Sept jours, 109)*

*Era más que probable que su socio se opusiera a sus nuevas ideas. (Siete Días)*

*Il est bien probable que la petite dame ait raison, dit-il en savourant le silence qu'il venait d'imposer. (Sept jours, 140)*

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*Es muy probable que la señorita tenga razón -dijo, saboreando el silencio que acababa de imponer. (Siete Días)*

In the examples above, there are no changes to the structure during the translation: both in Spanish and French, third person singular is used to express state or emotions in the structure “être/ser + adjective”.

Same as in Spanish (mentioned previously), the verb être may be omitted in French.

For example:

*Aussi étrange que cela paraisse, peu de gens pourront les nommer, alors qu'ils évalueront sans problème cinq dictateurs. (Sept jours, 69)*

*Por raro que parezca, poca gente será capaz de dar su nombre, mientras que dirán sin ninguna dificultad el de cinco dictadores. (Siete Días)*

There are common impersonal structures such as “il y a” – “hay” that express presence, existence or location.

For example:

*Il y a des journées où le temps passé si vite... (S. Un peu de soleil, 63)*

*...donde no hay qué comer... (O.A. Lazarill., 34)*

*Finalmente, en el Molino había una huerta que producía, toda clase de frutas y legumbres... (A.A. El sombrero, 21)*

French impersonal structures with the verbs sembler and paraître have such Spanish counterparts as the structures with the verb parecer that are used in the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular.

For example:

*Lorsque Zofia monta dans sa voiture, il lui sembla qu'elle le regardait droit dans les yeux. (Sept jours, 131)*

*Cuando Zofia montó en su coche, le pareció que lo miraba directamente a los ojos. (Siete Días)*

*Il me semble que les conditions sont favorables... (S.E. Prince)*

*Me parece que las condiciones son favorables... (ASE.es)*

*Il me semblait porter un trésor fragile. Il me semblait même qu'il n'y eût rien de plus fragile sur la Terre. (S.E. Prince)*

*Me parecía llevar un frágil tesoro. Me parecía incluso que no había nada más frágil sobre la Tierra. (ASE.es)*

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- *Bon, ne fais pas cette tête-là, il paraît que de temps en temps les histoires d'amour finissent bien!* (Sept jours, 91)

*Bueno, no pongas esa cara, parece ser que de vez en cuando las historias de amor acaban bien.* (Siete Días)

In this case, there is an exact match, namely, the impersonal structures are formed with personal verbs in 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular both in French and in Spanish.

Here are a few more examples:

*...il lui semblait que tout le monde le dévisageait, que tout le monde le trouvait laid...* (S. Un peu de soleil, 29)

*Il me semble que vous la connaissez.* (N. Antec, 124)

*Mas, según me parece, es regla ya entre ellos usada y guardada...*(O.A. Lazarillo, 53)

There are some cases of impersonal structure usage with the verb arriver and the structure puede ser.

For example:

*S'il t'arrivait un pépin comme tu dis, moi je serais toujours là.* (L. O., 109)

*...il m'arrive encore parfois de les vivre.* (L. Toutes ces choses, 299)

*...pues podría ser que alguno que las lea halle algo que le agrade y, a los que no ahondaren tanto, los deleite.* (O.A. Lazarillo, 3)

The same phenomenon can be observed in certain cases with the verbs suffire/alcanzar (bastar).

For example:

- *Mais, sur ta si petite planète, il te suffisait de tirer ta chaise de quelques pas.* (S.E. Prince)

*Pero en tu planeta tan pequeño, te alcanzaba con correr tu silla algunos pasos.* (ASE.es)

- *Il suffirait que les deux cerveaux de l'organisation aspirent au même air pour en venir à s'étouffer mutuellement.* (Sept jours, 65)

*Bastaría que los dos cerebros de la organización aspiraran el mismo aire para ahogarse mutuamente.* (Siete Días)



## Conclusion

Therefore, one can conclude that both in Spanish and French, there are two equivalent groups of verbs (impersonal-proper and personal verbs used in impersonal constructions). Personal verbs include transitive, as well as intransitive, verbs of various semantic groups. Along with similarities, there are some differences in the ways of expressing impersonality in French and Spanish. The analysis showed that indefinite-personal structures in French have various counterparts in Spanish. Moreover, the meaning of generalization and ambiguity of the subject, typical of indefinite-personal structures in French, is closely linked to the notion of structures with impersonal meaning in Spanish. This proves once again that it is impossible to distinguish between indefinite-personal and impersonal structures in the Spanish language.

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