ANALYTICAL SYNTAX FOR TEACHING ENGLISH (3)

— a non-native approach —

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Chapter IV   Syntactic Syllables[1]

4.1   Paradigm for syllables

Syntax or grammar as a branch of linguistic science can be regarded in two different aspects; firstly it can be considered as a search for the final and absolute truth or explanation of the subject called language, one of the phenomena which humanity as a whole demonstrates and engages in, it can also be regarded as a technology with which we obtain better command of the human skill of that name for both individual performance as well as for communal convenience of the race as a whole.

In acquiring of a second language, or a non-native language, the first may supply us with the information on the language in question, natural or artificial, besides the general knowledge on the matter so designated, while the second will furnish us with the economy in teaching or learning of that skill for any purpose at all.

The recent development in linguistics has not only enabled us to obtain an insight into the matter but also enlightened us in the art of the teaching or learning of foreign languages as such. It has especially weaned us off the age-old obsession that foreign language learning is never complete until it becomes as good as the native one, that it should always look to the way of natives as one goes after the mirage of a lake in a desert. Now, that is, since Chomsky, we can pretend, pedagogically at least, that the language so taught and learned is tentatively set as finite and fixed, that it can be described and operated at an optional level of approximation and completeness, that it is not an infinite, open culture whose elements one has to garner one by one toward infinite degrees of adequacy. In a word, for the point of departure, we have the language as a known rather than as an unknown.

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1) Continuation from the article under the same title in the previous issue of the present publi-
    cation, p. 59 ff., 1972.

The model of an n-$_{th}$ degree approximation, for instance, of langauge, may be conceived as a machine consisting of two units; one, the so-called lexicon, in a form of memory reservoir, conveniently classified with indices and cross-references for scanning and calling, and the other, the operational formula, the programme, some obligatory while others optional depending upon the command fed into the machine. The operator of the machine, the speaker, real or imagined, selects at each operational level the optimal vocabulary items from the specified class of the lexicon to best suit the situation and the meaning he wants to express. His mentality keeps working throughout the operation toward the better and more perfect expression of what he has in mind. Thus what is conceived is being formulated in linguistic terms *ad lib* and step by step along the automatic prescriptions of the language. The product coming forth from the device, or the arrangement, will all be grammatical sentences expressing what was intended by the operator.

Such is the productive phase of the simulated model of a speaker, while the receptive phase of speech, on the other hand, is the inverse of the process above; one traces the process of the production, with a certain range of anticipatory threshhold ahead and a span of memory behind. Along the retracing of the process, he imagines himself or identifies himself parenthetically with the author, the owner of the original expression; in other words, he comprehends the message and undergoes a proper inner experience and perhaps goes on even to react in the way he choses, which, however, may or may not be the result the sender of the message intends to affect.

In the mother tongue operation, this is done both ways almost unconsciously, but in a foreign langauge, this must be done the hard way until the repeated practice fixes and paves the circuit of the flow of the operation with minimum loss of energy and time in the transit.

Pedagogically we have so far established, or at least we have proceeded under the impression, and with a consession, that any and every teachable English sentence is such that it falls into either of the said five formulae distinguishable from each other by the kind of the so-called predicate verb used (information given *a priori* in the form of lexicon), which, in turn, determines the constitution of the sentence in terms of the kind and order of the immediate constituents, the syntactic syllables, and that the syllables are four in kind (information partially already given and partially to be given in the ensuing sections.)

Thus, anyone, native or non-native, can judge a sentence as to whether it is grammatical or not, not solely upon his native sense—which he might have or might not have—as long as he is given the formula and the lexicon to depend upon, and inversely he can compose grammatical sentences without recourse to his native sense, which he might not have. This is the very basis of the non-native approach to a

foreign langauge here proposed.   We teach a simulated language, tailored into an ideal and finite state, known or eventually knowable.   Analytical syntax deliniates the inherent coding system of an algebra called English from one direction, analysis of what is supposed to be known. It is one of the two complementary directions of deliniating a reality, which neither analysis nor synthesis alone can ultimately explicate or describe.

Articulation or syllabication of a given sentence here attempted, therefore, presupposes the identity of such segments of speech, the cohesive tendency that holds the inner elements together within each segment.   We have suggested that the syllables are thus to be obtained and identified through dual scrutiny, by dividing the known whole, a complete speech in the form of sentences, into meaningful segments, and by locally adding up the known individual elements into larger structure without knowing where the process leads to, the process itself, however, simultaneously characterising the product.

The designation of syllables is thus derived first from the total syntax, the sentence, the initial known, then mutually between and among the four, and finally from their inner constitution. Syntactical analysis of a sentence is meaningful only when the eventual integrity of the sentence is insured and it is possible only when the laws that govern the inherent tropism of the final dividents of the analysis (concurrently the initial items of synthesis) to cohere or repell each other are previously given and known.

The situation may be expressed schematically as the two directions of the scanning process of a single state of affairs called language. One direction is downward from the totality of speech, where its integrity and validity is taken for granted, through the level of syllables and down to the level of vocabulary items, i. e., that of words, as final dividents, or in short, division of a continuity into a discontinuity. The other direction of scanning the same vista is to scan it from the level of concrete words as the known, both in terms of what each word means and how it behaves when collocated with other words, then going up through the level of syllables, to reach the final unity, the sentence, namely, integration of a discontinuity into a continuity. The point is, no matter which the direction, the path of the routine seems to be the same.

level of sentence

level of syllables

level of words
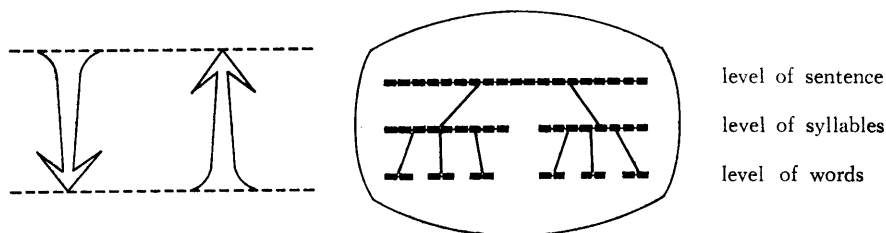
However, since we have started to scan and describe the situation from the sentence
level down and have come to the level of the syllables, or, from the morphology of
sentences in terms of syllables, we are to extend the process still downward to the
level of words, or even lower, that is to say, we must present a morphology of sylla-
bles in terms of their inner structure as an assembly of distinct, meaningful elements,
down to words. The morphology for the predicate verb syllables, as a matter of fact,
has been already given in Chapter II.

The paradigm below contains three tables, one for noun syllables, another for ad-
jective syllables and the last for adverb syllables. Each table is arranged downward
in several layers according to their inner state of affairs. As the structure of the
syllables cannot be expressed but in terms of the kind and the arrangement of the
elements which have not yet been defined, except in the case when a syllable has no
inner segmentation, the first level of the paradigm for the three tables is of those
type of syllables that consist of only one, un-analyzable element, i. e., in lay term, a
word.

The indices entered at this level as 'noun', 'adjective', etc., are, in principle, the
class-designations given to words that are found to fill the so-called 'slot' particular to
each type of syllables so named. Thus 'pronoun' and 'noun' are the names given to
words that can become noun syllables by themselves, in the syntax, and when the first
layer of the three syllables are classified in this manner, we can use these terms
mutually and laterally in expressing the lower levels of affairs, e. g., in the case of
the noun syllable; the level named 'combined words' are instituted as containing those
combinations of two nouns already determined at the first layer, and laterally we can
institute phrasal nouns by combining a noun and an adjective, the latter being deter-
mined as a word filling the adjective syllable by itself. In fact, the third layer of
the paradigm, the 'adjoined phrases' are so formulated, while for the fourth layer,
some terms are those partially carried over from the paradigm of the predicate verbs
already defined and used, —a case of what we call 'subordination'. The lowest layer
contains new terms 'conjunction' and 'clause' which are to be defined later in due
course.

The paradigm given below specifies how syllables are formed with the vocabulary
items enumerated laterally in the lexicon, that is to say, inversely it prescribes how
words themselves string together ultimately to attain the adequate shape to fill and
fit into the morphology of the four cardinal function-form continuums of sentences,
the syllables. The middle term that connects these two converse routines is a set of
class-names, the so-called 'phrase markers', entered here as representing respectively
a class of vocabulary items or kind of structure.

In the following sections explanations will be given on each of the tables in terms

PARADIGM FOR SYLLABLE FORMATION

	layers	**Table 1** Noun syllables	**Table 2** Adjective syllables	**Table 3** Adverb syllables
word	1. single	nouns pronouns	adjectives articles	adverbs interjections
phrase	2. combined	noun × Noun	....	....
	3. adjoined	Adj. × Nouns	Adv. × adjectives	Adv. × adverbs.
	4. bracketed (phrase)	.... Infinitive + α Gerund + α	prep. + Nouns Infinitive + α .... Participle + α $\begin{cases}\text{present} \\ \text{past}\end{cases}$	prep. + Nouns Infinitive + α .... Participle + α $\begin{cases}\text{present} \\ \text{past}\end{cases}$
clause	5. bracketed (clause)	conj. + Clause	(conj. + Clause)	conj. + Clause

of their inner structure according to the way the elements are joined together and the syllables are contrasted with each other.

It should be remembered, however, that the paradigm is, inversely, a prescription of how words string themselves together ultimately to attain the adequate shape and 'morphology' to fulfill the role of either of the four kinds of syllables whose position and fuction in a given syntax is already known, namely, what we have been calling 'synthetic grammar', the cohesive tropism of elements from words up to syllables, indifferent of the intention of speech, the total eventual syntax.   Since such class-names as 'noun' and morphological categories as 'Gerund', 'Infinitive', etc, to be rede-fined in our procedure, do eventually coincide with the traditional classification for words and forms, we will use the terms, more or less taken for granted without strictly redefining.   When an element is not a word, but a structure that is to be considered as a noun-equivalent (phrase, clause, etc.,) we tentatively use capitalized symbols, e. g., Noun, Adj.   Adv., etc., whose noun-ness, adjective-ness etc., is verifiable from the syntax.   Any group of words that are filling the Subject or Object or nominal Complement, the noun syllable of a known context, for instance, is thus labled as Noun, and if it is a word, we use 'noun'.

4.2 Noun Syllable

We defined noun syllables as those inner units of a valid sentence filling the struc-tural position of Subject, Object and nominal Complement (the last being also filled with Adjective syllable, however.)   It thus follows that any matter that fills these positions in a clause or a sentence is to be considered as a noun syllable.   So far the

determination is of a relative nature, that is to say, while it is the verb that deter-mines the pattern of a clause or a sentence, it is the pattern, in turn, that determines the nature of the verb; they are a set of mutually definable terms. As long as we derive the categories for the constituents of a sentence from the accepted total syntax of the sentence, this mutuality is inescapable.

To quote an extreme case, if the sentence ' "?" is a question mark' is accepted and understood as a legitimate sentence carrying the proper meaning it intends to carry, then it follows that '?' in the sentence is the subject, hence it is a noun syllable regardless of what it actually is on the paper or elsewhere, since '?' fills the position of the subject to make the sentence stand. Unlike the '?' in the example whose noun-ness, the noun-syllable-ness and the subject-ness all come from the totality and integrity of the expression we have accepted, those we find and handle in reality will be the usual use of nouns and noun syllables. So, we are assured, if we relegate such meta-use of linguistic elements like the '?' above, however, what remains fits rather well for morphological analysis and we can now safely enter the realm below syllables.

Table 1 is a paradigm for noun elements according to their constituents and com-position. The principle here being that any structure that is included here can be mobilized as the noun syllable of any sentence; inversely, a sentence that has its noun syllables in any of these formations is legitimate and valid regardless of the meaning. If a word can fill Subject, Object or Complement of a known sentence, it is known to be a noun, and by repeating the process a class of vocabulary items may be enumerated into a lexicon. The first layer then consists of nouns of a single word. Those words that are classed as nouns in conventional dictionaries may be considered to be of this kind.[2] The one-word-ness of each word being more or less taken for granted as the point of departure, and as long as we know that the element under analysis is a single word and that it is filling the position of a noun syllable in an accepted known sentence, the designation of the word as a noun is automatically and sufficiently done, deriving the judgement solely from syntax, without recourse to the semantic or morphological features below.

While most of the single-word nouns accompany other elements, one particular group among the noun elements[3] that appear exclusively in single-word formation is the group called pronouns. Inversely, pronouns repell any adjective; one cannot very well say 'lovely you'. etc., for instance. Every thing or affair referred to by a

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2) Should we not, as a matter of fact, say inversely that those vocabulary items that can fill the position called noun syllables may be primarily classified as nouns, instead of defining them according to morphological or semantic standards.

3) The term 'element' is an operational term for tentatively handling a given fragment without respect to its syntactical or gramatical status.

noun element in an expression is potentially possible to be re-referred to by a proper kind of pronoun depending upon the status of the thing referred to and upon the owner of the expression.[4] In a sentence 'It is wrong to do so.', the phrase 'to do so' is preparatorily represented by the pronoun 'it' which refers, not to an item beyond the sentence, but stands for something within the sentence. In a dialogue 'To do so is wrong.' 'Yes, it is', the pronoun 'it' is there doubly ambiguous. Does this 'it' stand for the fraction (the infinitive phrase of the sentence) or the act itself? The pronouns in all of the declensions except for that of genitive are particular in that they assert themselves to be used in a particular kind of function in the given superior context, as indicated by such terms as 'nominative' (for subject and complement), 'accusative' and 'dative' (for object), while the nouns are usually non-self-asserting.

Such morphological changes involved in these cases of the pronouns are new to Japanese learners. To them it all appears inconsistent that some cases are expressed while others are not expressed by such inflectional indices. They seem to be almost too precarious a grammatical and semantic category-expressing system to Japanese learners in whose langauge all the cases of relational meaning are explicitly expressed by the particles. What the Japanese express consistently by the set of particles seems to be expressed in English haphazardly by word order, by prepostions and by the case declensions.[5]

The pronouns also include those reflectives (when it happens to refer to the same item or person referred to by the subject), they usually stand in the position of Object, or else, appositive repetition of the noun syllable, thus, 'I, myself, go' or 'I go myself' (never 'Myself go', however.) The distinction between the appositive use and the adverbial including emphatic uses, however, will become nebulous. Some irony is

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4) It is, therefore, erraneous to consider that some nouns are 'replaced' by certain pronous, except in the case of meta-uses, e. g., a pronoun in a sentence designating a word or a section of that very sentence or of the paragraph that contains the sentence. 'I am here' is not the replacement of saying 'So-and-so am here', or 'I love you, Mary' that of 'I love Mary, you'.

5) The pronominal declension is redundant to Japanse eyes because if there were no pronouns, there will be no case-inflections involved in English, the meaning as well as the structure being adequately expressed and determined without them. Thus 'A loves B' is no less explicit and clear than 'I love him', then why not 'He loves I', 'You love he', etc? The discussion here is not so much on the traditionally called case as it is on the matter that pronouns are unique in demanding the kind of syntactical position they hold as independent syllables of a sentence into which they are placed. In Japanese, inflectional pronouns do not exist; it has a set of pronoun-like words, but they behave as any other nouns do, while the function carried by English declension is expressed by specific particles, usually postposed.

involved when such proper names constituting of more than one element should be considered as one word; e. g,. 'New York'. Is it a single word or two? Then come noun phrases as noun elements filling the slot of the noun syllable. The problem of the one-word-ness of such a word like 'New York' above brings us into the composite structures, i. e., those noun elements that consist of more than one word.

The first group will be of those intermediate ones like 'New York' again, of course, and others like 'John F. Kennedy', etc., where we cannot exactly say that they are of one word or of two or more words. Typographical habits and orthography are only too feeble a justification for any argument on this matter. Then come such combinations as 'book store', 'stone bridge', etc., where both members are nouns (Their noun-ness can be verified by putting them into S., O., and C. of a known sentence, of course.) 'Base ball matches' consists of three words, and it fully depends on the intacit understanding whether it means any ball-matches carried on at the base of something, or matches that are being performed in base-ball, etc. The inner structure of such combinations is often something beyond the grammatical analysis; the 'base ball' here could have been a brand-name for matches, instead of cigarette lighters, etc.

We can generalize, however, a tendency that when two terms, both being confirmed as nouns, are connected in a series, usually the preceding element adjoins itself onto the following, that is, the first member behaves as if it is an adjective to the noun that follows; thus, 'stone bridge' is a kind of a bridge, while a 'bridge stone', if there is a kind of stone that is closely related to bridges, hence, mostlikely the stone that is used, or to be used in the building of a bridge, etc. This may be better considered under the heading of 'Synthetic Grammar'.

Thus 'book', a noun, and 'cover', another noun, adjoin themselves and form a unit of meaning expressed by 'book cover', something with which a book is to be covered, hence 'book cover cover' is something with which to cover the given 'book cover', then a 'book cover cover cover' is yet another thing with which to cover the cover of the said 'book cover' and so on. The adjoining is bilateral at each stage of the process and the relation between any two adjacent words or units can be further classified. Whether 'President Kennedy' is a Kennedy who happened to be the president or the president who happened to be a Kennedy may or may not be distinguishable, but in the case of 'stone bridge' it is more determined; 'stone' is subjugated to 'bridge', it is a kind of bridge characterized by, some way or other, 'stone'. And we could name this type of relationship as 'adjoining' with a vector, and express it with a multiplication symbol and an arrow, thus: stone $\overset{\rightarrow}{\times}$ bridge. We could, as an afterthought, bracket the words 'stone' and 'bridge' each with a pair of brackets indicating that both are potentially noun elements, hence ultimately [[stone] $\overset{\rightarrow}{\times}$ [bridge]],

while the phrase as a whole may be thus simply [stone bridge]. If, however, a hyphen were employed in between, it is all the more explicit, and if these two words were spelled together, it is a word with no such structural problems involved. (The case of 'President Kennedy' remains still ambiguous notwithstanding.)

The majority of the phrasal nouns are of two-member combination with one member of the pair more inherently and overtly adjoining itself onto the other, the adjoining member being so-called 'adjectives' of various kinds. The word adjectives is actually separated and defined by observing if they can fill by themselves the complement positions but never that of subject of any given sentence. We are, of course, here dealing with noun and noun elements, and it is from this point of view that we are introducing adjectives—adjectives as something that nouns absorb.

Thus we say whenever a noun is found being qualified, it is an adjective that is qualifying; inversely if an adjective is qualifying anything, that 'anything' must be a noun. These two terms are mutually definable. This is not an equivoque, it is a way of determining a relational situation. There are a variety of phrasal and clausal adjective elements, preposed or post-posed, in attribution of the noun elements. We will reserve the discussion until we come to that of adjectives.

Thirdly we have another layer for noun elements, these bracketed phrases, that are not of the extension of a noun with qualifying adjectival elements, but the arrangement itself has the potentiality of being handled as a noun element. On this fourth layer of the noun syllable formation are such bracketed phrases, by which is meant a noun element whose unity and noun-ness are expressed by an index, either in the form of a word or in some other form. Unlike the cases in Table 2 and 3, Table 1 contains no parallel to prepositional phrases. The first of those phrases are derived from a verbal structure, e. g., gerunds with or without their subordinate element, thus 'coming to school with me', 'making him active in the party', etc, while the 'coming' or 'making' itself can be operated as if they were originally nouns, with the understanding that it can have the plural and can take adjectives preposed or post-posed, 'a coming', 'coming', 'his coming', 'his comings,' etc. 'His coming to school' is also possible, but not 'his comings to school'.

Then comes the infinitive with or without its subordinate elements, in the capacity of Subjct, Object or Complement of any known syntax. Infinitives are best to be considered as adverbial, but easiest to start teaching as the objects of such verbs as 'want', etc. This notwithstanding, an infinitive with its subordinate in the position of Subject, Object and Complement may be presented here with some difficulty in the complement positions. 'To see is to believe' with 'to believe' as C-n is problematic. (Hence 'Seeing is believing'.) In the position of adjectival complement it is even more difficult. In 'The easiest solution is to do it yourself' the infinitive phrase is

without question a noun, in Subjective complement. Whereas an infinitive phrase as an objective complement in the adjective status is easy, the same in the noun status is almost impossible, which fact indorses the fact that infinitives were originally an adverb-orientated structure. That an infinitive phrase as an adjectival complement (unless to-less) may be renderable into an adverb phrase may also confirm the presumption. The infinitive phrase cannot, however, be qualified by adjectives; it can only be further defined by an adverbial element from within the subordinate context.

Finally, the relative clauses that retro-actively adjoin themselves onto the antecedent, the noun element, are the most sophisticated of the post-posed attribution nouns can have. The difficulty lies in the fact that a relative clause, considered as qualifying the noun, the so-called antecedent of the relative pronoun, is no longer an adjective when it is transferred to the position of the complement. There is no clausal adjective that can stand alone as an adjectival complement of a sentence, hence the parenthesis in the paradigm. If in 'man that I knew' whose relative clause 'that I knew' is transferred to the position of the complement, thus "He is that I knew', we are only to find that 'that', the relative, becoming the pronoun including the conjuncion, thus in 'He is whom I knew' (if it is possible to say thus at all), the clause 'whom I knew' is no longer an adjective complement, it is, as a matter of fact, a noun complement. The problem here is that the alleged clausal adjective that appears to qualify the antecedent is not exactly adjective in nature. It may be better to consider such as clausal noun standing in apposition to the noun preceding. So, practically speaking, the relative clause in qualification, or attribution, of the noun may be considered not as an adjoining element, but as the direct apposition. Thus 'the man who goes there' may be analysed as 'the man, he, goes there', etc. It is only as pedagogical concern that we take the relative clause as adjectival in practice.

Finally we come to the second group of the bracketed noun structure, namely, the clausal nouns, usually preceded by a subordinate conjunction. The clausal nouns contain a variety of kinds depending mostly on the kind of the subordinate conjunction involved. 'That' alone seems to be purely conjunctional while the rest are those relatives containing the antecedent, if we include the so-called relative clauses on the basis that they are, though pedagogically, adjectives. They are such as:

    [that he goes there] is true
    [whom I love] is he
    [what I like] is this
    [where he goes] is not known
    [how he does it] is a problem.

The situation gets confusing where we have the conjunctions as those found in:

       I do not know [why he came]

       I doubt [if he likes it], etc.,

where these clauses, regardless of the kind and meaning of the conjunctions employed, must be admitted as Nouns, and justly those elements can be re-refrred to by an 'it', never by a plural pronoun. However, a doubt arises in such cases as

       I hope [that he comes]

where the clausal noun may be considered as adverbial, instead, expressing the manner, purpose, etc., of the act (intransitive, complete) of hoping, and, we ask ourselves whether we should confirm the statement by saying 'I hope it, too' or by 'I hope so.' The transitive-ness of the verb, and the noun-ness of the that-clause are bound syntactically, as intransitive-ness of the verb, and the adverb-ness of the verb and the adverb-ness of the that-clause are likewise connected, but never cross-wise.

I	hope	to see
S	vt, accus.	noun (Object)
	vi, complete	adv. (Adv.)

The actual, native experience and feeling might remain indistinct at this but once one becomes conscious and precise, he cannot very well evade the choice.

By definition, again, clausal nouns are such clauses that (with or without conjunction preceding) may be handled as a unit filling the position of Subject, Object and with minimum of possiblity, Complement.[6]

Difficulties may be, however, further confronted toward the remote areas of syntax, e. g., objective complement, where the applicability of any clausal noun as a complement may be again doubted, as in:

       She suggested him [that he should come]

       She suggested him [that she should go].

This concludes the discussion on noun elements. Some difficulty however remains besides those already cited above; a gerund, for instance, has an identical form with that of a present participle and likewise an infinitive has concurrently the possibility of both adjective and adverb (beside, of course, the noun use), and if the nature of the verb is not known, the position they take in a sentence is undeterminable. That is to say, if a subject is followed by an undefined verb and then by an infinitive phrase (with or without its subordinate element), there is no way to decide in which

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6) Examples of clausal complement, subjective and objective, may be such:

    The sorrow was that he was not there.

    He had it that it should stop. (if possible, meaning 'He demanded that the practice should cease and he had it obeyed eventually')

pattern this sentence is, because the infinitive can be noun, adjective or even adverb. If noun, the sentence pattern may be either S+Vi+C (whose C is either adjective or noun) or it could be S+Vi+O or yet, S+Vi+Adv. A similar situation is found in the cases of gerunds; if the given structure is S+undefined verb+root+ing, we might have it either S+Vt or S+Vi+C, where C is a noun.

Identification of noun elements by their interchangeability among the three positions applies down to the level, in the table, of gerunds but not quite so with infinitives and clauses. One more point about noun elements is their relationship with prepositions. Noun elements down to the level of a gerund may be preceded by prepositions, but there is a doubt if clausal nouns should or should not be considered as governed directly by prepostions even though the structure may contain one.[7] Infinitives as noun elements do also refuse to be preceded by any preposition except in the *delayed phenomena* as 'for to see' etc., the 'to' being obviously the prepostion preceding the noun use of the bare infinitive 'see'. 'Upon his pitching the first ball' is led by a prepostion 'upon' but in this case it governs the entire section following 'his', the head of the noun element being 'pitching', a gerund, while 'ball' its subordinate element, in this case, the object.

To sum up, the morphology for noun syllables, in pursuance of the direction of the syntax, is done firstly by way of designating those undivisible elements filling the positions of the known noun syllables (not by the morpholgy or semantic information of individual words) then comparing it with and distinguishing it from word-adjectives, and adverbs, which are likewise obtained as in the case of nouns in single-word syllables. Then the complex structure of noun elements are designated firstly by recognizing two or more already determiened nouns adjoined to make up a structure fit for noun syllables. Then the already known adjectives and adverb elements are introduced laterally from the other tables to determine the further complex structures of noun syllables.

4.3 Adjective Syllables

This section is about Table 2 of the Paradigm expressing the formation of the adjective syllables, which have, in our syntax, only one position to hold, the function of the complement, both subjective and objective. The discussion will follow the pattern in which we discussed the noun syllables. The transition from a noun into

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7) The conjunction (in these cases mostly relative pronouns) precedes the clause, of course, but the subordinate clause itself does not seem to be directly governed by the prepositon; e. g. in 'to whom it may concern', 'to' takes the object 'whom, but not immediately the entire clause led thereby. The phrase may be analysed as 'to [him] [that it may concern.] Likewise 'I see the hope in that he called on us first' may be analysed as 'I see the hope in [the fact] [that he called on us first],' in which 'the fact' is supplied.

an adjective, both as categories, is itself, in a way symbolic and proper for explaining the English syntax.

The adjective syllables share the position of the complement with the noun syllables—hence the problem of distinguishing adjectives from nouns. The only and theoretical solution is to see if the unknown element can also fill the position of Subject or Object of a given sentence (if it does, it is not an adjective but a noun.) Even on the level of vocabulary items, i. e., that of words, the relationship between these two kinds of words are close.[1] The propinquity from each other is found in their cohesion; adjectives exclusively qualifying nouns, and nouns adjoining themselves onto other nouns as if they were adjectives, hence the confusion in the first terms of the combinations. The conversion of nouns into adjectives is done by the simple addition of suffixes, -y, for instance, while adjectives are shifted into nouns by sheer addition of the article or by derivative endings such as -ness. In some cases nouns and adjectives are even in the same shape as in 'cold', 'calm', etc.[2]

Returning to the original discussion of our paradigm, Table 2, we will start determining adjectives by finding those words that can by themselves fill the position of adjective syllables of a syntax. The single word adjectives includes first of all, those we know conventionally as adjectives, both regular and irregular (which include those that do not change their shapes for degree declensions,) they can be mobilized both as the complement of subject and object, in three degrees, superlative, comparative and absolute. Instead of the inflectional expression, some (those that do not incur the changes) take the adverb 'more' and 'most'. The superlative is often prefixed with a definite article, which fact gives rise to the ambiguity whether or not the adjectives are transformed into nouns or still remain adjectives.

The single-word adjectives may contain those that happen to be single, while potentially capable of bringing in their subordinate elements. The single word adjective proper can be modified or amplified through the adjoining of adverbs, according to our

1) The fact is quite true also with the Japanese language and if the learners are below the the age where they can distinguish the difference between these two even in their mother tongue, the practical teaching will face difficulties. Another problem for the Japanese learners is that the Japanese adjectives are often endowed with the power to predicate as if they were verbs. The confusion is immense thus when participles are brought in and infinitives are incorporated in the English structure, while intellectual understanding, on the part of the learners, is yet not quite established.

2) The close relationship of this kind is often the source of difficulty for the Japanese learners as again in their language these are often nondistinct. 'One is *byoki*' in which 'byoki' is apparently adjective, so one can be seriously 'byoki'. But his 'byoki' can be either serious or trifle, and so on. (Discussed also in 1.5.)

observation, in the way nouns are extended by the adjoining of adjectives, which we called 'qualifying'. Thus an adjective 'big' can become 'very big', 'quite big' or 'not big', etc., which brings us one layer down to what we might call phrasal adjectives. (The lateral recourse to the adverb, of course, presupposes that one-word adverbs are directly obtainable, in the way we have obtained nouns and adjectives.) Thus, we have the phrasal adjectives in the form of adv.×adj.→Adj. The phrasal adjectives can freely adjoin themselves onto nouns.

We will then go one layer down along the scale thus reaching the layer of composite phrasal adjectives by means of bracketing. Prepositional phrases are the first member we find there. Prepositional phrases can be both subjective and objective complement as any adjective element can be. The problem here, however, is that prepositonal phrases have two faces, that of adjective and that of adverb, and the semantic distinction as to this effect is no less easy to make. In 'He is at home', does it say that the person is in a mental state of relaxation regardless of where he is, or is he really at his home, regardless of his mental and emotional state? In 'We made him at home', do we mean thereby that he eventually came home or was he behaving as if he were among his family? Is the use undeterminate, or the distinction forgotten? We do not know, from time to time, and more often, we do not care.

The next group of the bracketed structure includes those of the verb-derived formations, i. e., participles (both present and past) and infinitives both with their subordinate elements, which has been fully discussed in Chapter III as verbal complements and we shall not go into details on those items, despite the fact that this is the legitimate and proper place to discuss them. These subordinate structures can be, however, used as a post-posed adjoining adjective onto noun elements indorsing the fact that adjectives do function at two levels, one at the level of syntax and another at the level of local grammar with noun elements.

Adverbial elements modifying these types of adjective elements are incorporated in a manner as if the subordinate structure were in the full predicate syntax. Hence the adverb elements of the subordinate adjective structure get loose and become 'free' adverb elements of the syntax, e. g., an infinitive phrase 'to love him well' has a floating element, the adverb 'well', which does not directly adjoin itself onto the adjective in the shape of infinitive (to love), but modifies the verb 'love' instead, as any adverb would in any context, and thus it belongs only to the infinitive phrase, the adjective complement of the syntax, say, S+Vi+C, thus, we have 'She is to love him well' in which, however, the adverb 'well' does no longer belong to the infinitive but apparently to the verbal phrase 'is to love' or the clause as a whole.

The next layer below is the clausal adjectives. The clausal adjective is never found

in a complement position, hence the parenthesis in the paradigm. All the relative clauses considered to be attributive to the noun preceding (cf. p. 50), when they are transferred to the position of the complement, behave as clausal nouns.

The distinction between a noun and an adjective of an element is not self-evident; the testing item may be the interchangeability of an adjective and a noun in the position of a complement and the adjoining function of adjectives, besides, of course, the impossibility of adjectives becoming S and O in a given syntax. If an unknown element can be adjoined to a noun and concurrently it can be used as a Complement, the adjectiveness of the element is established. This is an additional feature for an adjective beyond that of noun.   These two functions are distinct from each other— one grammatical while the other syntactical. If we did not know a word x to be used as S or O in a given syntax and whether it is a noun or an adjective, in 'This is x', where x is known as complement, then find if x can be used in the sentence 'There is a very x y' where y is known as a noun, then we know x is an adjective.   (The doubt still remains, however, as to whether the x y combination happens not to be of the 'stone bridge' type of combination.)

As a matter of fact, some of these adjectives included in the earlier section that can be used only as delimiting adjectives unable to stand in the independent position of a complement are such words as 'the', 'my', and 'this' (as adjective, not as pronoun), etc. They do not fill the so-called slot of an adjective complement, and escape the test for determining an adjective or a noun above prescribed.   They also slip away as 'syntactical' words in our lexicon (cf. footnote[4], p. 73).   The problem, however, is not too seriously pedagogical as we could enumerate these in the lexicon, that is to say, these belong to a 'closed sub-class' and the membership there is also very limited.

Another problem presents itself, however, when we confront such pronoun adjectives as 'all', 'some', 'such', etc.   In 'all men' the adjective 'all' seems to delimit, in number, the 'men' through adjoining, but when it is used in a phrase like 'all the books', we are in doubt. 'Such a book', etc., are all of this type demanding separate consideration.[3]   The numerals are also problematic, 'some men', 'four men', etc., for instance, when these adjectives are placed in complment positions. They behave there very strangely, e. g., 'four men'—'Men are four in number'., etc. The solution for these may be to withhold them until the obvious use of the adjoining adjective is established, and then, limit the use to the adjoining, suppressing the independent uses as complement, e. g., thus teach the impossiblity of 'all' being used in a collocation 'Men

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3) 'All' as an adverb may be tenable in the sentence cited, and also in 'all the men' where 'all' adjoins adverbially onto the article, a kind of adjective, since an article is, as is an adjective, anything but noun, and that which adverbs can modify.

are all', etc. In 'He drinks much', does this 'much' stand for the thing that was drunk (the quantity of which was not 'little' but 'much', incidentally.) or is it the degree, the manner, the extent of his drinking, that was immense, namely, is 'much' here a noun syllable or an adverb syllable?

Admitting that we are explaining the paradigm for syntactical adjectives, yet we could not very well evade going into the adjoining function inherent in every adjectival element as such is also the defining feature of the adjectiveness of the adjectives. While the majority of word-adjectives do qualify through pre-posed adjoining noun elements, there are a particular type of adjectives that also adjoin themselves onto nouns but delimit, rather than add to the meaning of the noun. Those are articles and the so-called pronominal adjectives. There is an obvious distinction between these two types of adjoining elements. Generally speaking, the additive qualities and characteristics may be prefixed by as many adjectives as required and desired, whereas the delimiting adjectives are usually prefixed, ultimate and exclusive. 'Big beautiful book' or 'very[4] big beautiful books' may be possible, but 'this my book', 'the his book' are not allowed. The fact that 'this' is an adjective (not a pronoun), in the position of a complement, is the very distinction between these two kinds of adjectives that can be applied to qualify or delimit the noun elements through adjoining. It should be noted that all the word-adjectives and their extensions so far introduced are cumulative and usually preposed, while some of them can be optionally post-posed or obligatorily post-posed. Adjectives of whatever kind may be further qualified by adverb elements before the adjoining.

The other types of adjectival elements can also adjoin themselves onto noun elements. These include prepostional phrase, clausal adjectives, with their subordinate elements. Some nouns, like 'something' and 'nothing' refuse to be prepositionally qualified, while some adjectives are only postpositionally adjoined, those include 'afraid', 'well', etc. There is considerable freedom stylistically in the choice between the two types of adjoining, preposing or postposing for most adjectival elements.

We have been some distance into the area which ought to be covered under synthetic grammar, and partially into the discussion of the noun syllables as they are so closely related with the functions of an adjective.

In the parsing of sentences, the adjective elements are often marked off regardless of whether they are attributive, i. e., adjoining adjective within the noun element, or they stand alone in the syntactical position of a complement. The relative clauses are often conveniently marked off as adjectives, rather than as appositive clausal nouns, in conformity to the current practice of teaching.

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4) 'Very' in this phrase is an adverb modifying the adjective 'big' (not 'beautiful', however) through adjoining, thus $\left[\begin{smallmatrix}\langle \text{very big}\rangle\\\langle \text{beautiful}\rangle\end{smallmatrix}\ \text{book}\right]$ is the formula explaining the structure of the noun phrase.

Such subordinate affairs as infinitive phrases and participial phrases as complement (hence an adjective element) are often hard to distinguish from their incidences in adverbial function, chiefly because they are morphologically undistinguishable and semantically undeterminate.

Those structures under the heading 'adjective syllables' are in principle applicable as an adjoining adjective to any sturcture coming under the heading of noun syllables, some are to be pre-posed while others are to be post-posed as the case may be. The class-index Adj. in the paradigm of a noun syllable can be filled by various forms of adjective elements, preposed and postposed, while bracketed elements are generally post-posed.

4.4 Adverb Syllables

The adverb syllables are designated negatively; take from a sentence all the pattern forming, already defined syllables, and if there is any that remains, regardless of the shape and the position, and no matter how many units, it is adverbial. The adverb elements, according to our precedence, is supposedly the designation given to a certain kind of words, phrases or even clauses that fill the slot of adverb syllables of a given context. The morphological clues by which to indorse a given unit as adverbial will be difficult as adverb elements are diverse in shape and kind. The only way is, therefore, to provide an enumerated lexicon in which every and all the adverbs are listed together with a paradigm which tells what kind of structures constitute adverb elements up to syllables.

If the elimination of all the known syllables from a known syntax leaves us only one individual unit, i. e., a word, then that word is identifiable as an adverb, and repeating the process we may have a collection of single word adverbs which will coincide with a portion of the class of words usually classified as adverbs. The difficulty is here again, the hetrogenous composition of the group so assembled, besides the formal difficulty when what remains is not a single word but a number of distinguishable units whose mutual relationship is not immediately known.

At one of the extremities, we have such adverbs as those sharing the shape and meaning almost undistinguishable from adjectives or prepositions, e. g., 'up', 'over' or 'slow', 'hard', etc., while some apparently[1] carry adverb indicating indices, such as the prefix a- or suffix -s, -ly, -ward or -wise, etc.

The nouns whose meaning happens to be designations for time, space, reason, etc., are often used as adverbs, thus 'today' is a noun but used as a short for 'on today' etc. Likewise, 'here' is a pronoun in 'from here' but in 'Come here!', it is an adverb, and so on.

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1) 'Apparently' because they are again inconsistent, e. g., 'elderly', 'lovely' are not adverbs, while 'hard' and 'hardly' are both adverbs (with the latter being at the same time adjective.)

Another group of one-word adverbs we find in the stock are such as 'not', 'never', 'ever', 'even'; 'yes', 'no', etc., whose status as adverb is derived simply from the syntax only as stated above. Unless given by lexicon *a priori*, they are determined only as the analytical *remnants* of a given sentence. Some of these are actually exclamatory interjections.[2] The attempt at distinguishing these for the sake of morphological consistency will be futile (cf. Embryo Sentence, Chapter I.) In our analysis of sentences, we need not be afraid of designating words as adverbs whenever they are indeterminate and obscure. Apparently the older adverbs are undistinguishable from adjectives, or such categorical distinction did not formerly occur to the mind of the speakers except as varied nuances of expression. We have no reason why adverbs and adjectives should be, unless there is a need, made distinct from each other. The distinction between adverbs and some adjectives is hard to make especially where the latter is in a complement position, e.g. 'He goes slow', 'He knocked her down', etc. Thus 'He is up' could be interpreted in two ways; it can mean that the subject has the nature, status, quality, inclination, etc., indicated by the adjective 'up', or it could be saying that he is situated in the relative region designated by the adverb 'up', in short of 'upstairs', or he exists in the manner that is expressed by another kind of adverb 'up', more or less intimating the direction in reference to the verticality of any movement or state of affairs, and so on. It all seems to be a matter of relativity, and the exact meaning, to tell or to understand, is left *ad hoc* in the hands of those who participate in the communication.

The difficulty of single word adverbs is doubled when we have a backformed adjectival-complement of what is otherwise a complete verb, thus in 'He died poor', 'poor' is obviously an adjective and the verb 'die' a complete verb, intransitive, but the structure is in a *parody* of $S+Vi+C_{-aij}$ pattern, hence the difficulty of handling the adjective 'poor'. Instead of instituting a new sentence pattern $S+Vi$ complete + adjective, or to construe the adjective 'poor' as an adjective used in a parody of an adjectival complment, we should consider the sentence as complete and closed by the first two words, i.e, S.+C, compelling what remains to be, regardless of its proper classification, an analytical remnant, therefore a syntactical adverb, and accordingly an adverb.

The same situation prevails in the position of the objective complement; 'She married him young' could be construed in two or three ways: one, as a regular complete transitive verb (accusative) taking an accusative object, then an extra element 'young', though apparently an adjective, but according to our rule 'what remains after

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2) 'Interjection' a grammatical designation while the intejections themselves are syntactically designated as independent adverbial elements, the adverb syllables,

analysis is adverbial', it must be re-designated as an adverb. But if we consider the 'young' persists to be adjective, then we have to reconstrue the whole syntax, thus back-forming 'young' as an adjective, then reconsidering the verb, force it into a causative verb[3]. The distinction remains vague in English grammar despite the native conviction and assertion and English is full of such ambiguous adjective-adverb hybrids which tortures the foreign learners to whom the apparent simplicity is a cause of difficulty. These should therefore be avoided in teaching until the regular clear-cut structures where adverbial elements are explicit and self-evident has been taught and fixed. We should handle, if we must, these very native English idioms more or less as a parody, a digression, even an abuse, of the regular uses of formal English.[4] Seeming simpleness, the common forms among and across the different classes and uses, is always the source of confusion and embarrassment for foreign adult learners

Numerals and degree expressed in single words are also confusing as they do not bear prepositions or adverb-indicating endings. Designations such as 'north', 'home', 'here', 'there', also fail to bear any indication whether they are the names of something or the adverb intimating direction or destination in or to which something is

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3) The question still remains if it is she or he who was young when they married. The adjective of this type slips off the syntactic position and joins the orbit of the so-called participaial structure, the adverbial use of adjectives especially of participles. '(Being) young, she married him' or 'While young, she married him' may be said to underlie these formations.

4) In 'school is over' the word 'over' is a complement, hence, an adjective—may be the better way to explain the situation rather than teaching that adverb 'over' can thus occasionally fill the position of complement without incurring changes upon itself, as the so-called 'adverbial complement'. We do not immediately accept adverbs as a complement unless we institute the sixth sentence pattern, so when an apparent adverb comes into the position of an adjectival complement, as is the case here cited, it is indeed an adjective, not an adverb—is our tenet. So we would rather present a new type of adjective 'over' with its specific meaning, indicating a certain status or affairs, where something having been finished, covered to the farthermost end, or gone beyond the limit for return or recovery, even though the image of word 'over' as an adverb may linger. Hence such adverbs like 'over' taking the position of the adjectival complement in the case of 'School is over' can be accepted only as an eventual explanation. It is the process leading to the conclusion that is to be respected; thus from our syntax, 'over' inherently is an adverb, but only converting itself into an adjective, it can stand in the position of an adjectival complement. The meaning of the sentence 'It is over', unless the subject is situated over and beyond something, is that the subject referred to by 'it' has the nature or status expressed by the adjective 'over'. The word 'over' here should be taught primarily as an adjective if it were to be taught in this context, while keeping the image of an adverb at a distance, so that there will be no disturbance on the rule.

moving, etc.[5]

The second layer of adverb syllables contains phrasal adverbs. According to our procedure so far, an adverb is such that adjoins itself onto some other words except nouns. An adverb, in turn, can be modified by means of adjoining only by another adverb, post-posed or pre-posed, e. g., adverb 'much' can be extended as 'very × much', the primary meaning still remaining on the 'much', the modified. The product of such primary adjoining elements can be further extended by adjoining another adverb, thus 'not very much', and so on. This does not mean, however, that there is every possible combination between and among adverbs. The rule seems to be in need of a particular grammar for each adverb as each combination seems to be governed by particular rules incidental to both the terms involved for such combinations. Such particular, local rules fall between the paradigm and the lexicon—should it be extracted in the form of distinctive features of each word on the side of the lexicon, or as a rule of the syntax-orientated paradigm? It may also be true to say, after scrutinizing every actual incidence of the combination, that the majority of the rules are the semantic rules and perhaps we could excavate or deduce some prevailing local or stylistic rules for such incidences and routines. Someone could be very 'well', but never 'much' well, while he could be 'much' better, though never 'more' well, etc. The diversity and seeming freaks of individual adverbs should not be imposed upon the young learners, of course. The lexicon of the adverbs will be, as it is understandable, most haphazard and varied to organize.

The next layer of the paradigm finds those of bracketed structures that demand adverbial status. There are two kinds of those, one of which is the so-called prepositional phrases. The distinction of the two faces of a prepositional phrases, between that of an adjective and of an adverb, is also dependent on the semantic and syntactic context of the utterance. To recall, in 'I am at home', the prepositional phrase 'at home' may mean the state of the subject or the locality where he finds himself, the latter interpretation being adverbial. The amphibious nature of prepositional phrases is often a source of difficulty since there is no explicit indication as to that effect. Of course, where it does not affect the ultimate meaning of the message, no effort is made to distinguish on the conversant parties and the communication is carried out without determining eventually which. From time to time, however,

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5) In many langauges, including Japanese, the situation seems to be more or less common, which is conducive to the dependency on the translation, which fails to reveal such grammatical problems. It is not the product translation but the real understanding of the structure of the expression in the foreign language that we should be trying to impress the learners with. The fortunate surface similarity should not be depended upon or taken for granted and looked over with ease.

the distinction bears a crucial difference to the message without overt indications, at least for foreign learners. Each individual native has and gives his conviction, but never the reason to hold onto, and that which seems to be so obvious to the native is often most clue-less and arbitrary to the foreigners. Helpless, the foreign learners reserve the judgement until the entire context (minus that section unknown) is given and apprehended[6], and then find which interpretation should fit to the probable context.

The other group of phrasal adverbs contain those subordinate affairs derived from verbs which include, among others, infinitives. Infinitives have three faces, noun function, adjective function, which we have already dealt with, and thirdly the adverbial uses. Historically, infinitives seem to have developed for their adverbial functions, and hence infinitives in adjectival uses and noun uses are all convertible in some way or other into clausal adverbs far more directly and simply than otherwise. Thus: 'I want to know this' may be converted into 'I want that I know it' and likewise, 'I want him to do so' into 'I want that he does it.', 'To tell the truth, I like him' into 'If you ask me to tell the truth, I like him', or 'If I was to tell the truth,...' etc.

Infinitives as adverb elements are not much of a problem, syntactically, even though they may puzzle foreign learners in finding the logical relationship they hold to the remaining part of the clause unexpressed. The main difficulty of an infinitive phrase as an adverb element is that, in the complement position, it fails to indicate whether it is a noun or an adjective (as it did in indexing whether it is adverbial or nominal, etc.) 'I want them to go' is very clear of its meaning in appearance, but it is triply confusing; does it say that the subject wants that they be going, in which 'to go' is an adjectival complement, or if he does want 'their going' then 'to go' is a noun element filling the position of the syntactic object, and lastly, if the subject is demanding them in such a way that they eventually obey and go, then the infinitive is in adverbial function. If the second verb 'want' occurred without 'to', the situation is a little simpler; it must be the complement. The structural distinction and differentiation of the identical shapes of a unit may be left undecided unless some difference in meaning is incurred by the difference.

Then emerges the fourth layer of the adverbial phrase, another of the subordinate structures, namely, the participles, present and past. Participles with their subordinate elements are, if they are not adjoining post-posed adjectives in qualification of the preceding noun element, or if they are not in the position of the complement, adverb elements—what is traditionally called 'participial construction'.

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6) 'Apprehended,' instead of 'comprehended, is used to mean the understanding of a speech as a whole while leaving some portions thereof unknown.

The participle itself there is often suppressed and yet the structure is considered participial... a great myth for foreign learners. It often leaves the normal adjective suspended in a fraction of a clause, thus; 'He is proud, being young'—'Being young, he is proud'—'Young, he is proud', which, in appearance resembles the case of the first group. 'He died poor' may be rewritten (cf. p. 58) as 'He died being poor', the participial section could be fed with whatever adverbial meaning (such as reason, result, manner, degree, conditions, etc., as the case may be.) With or without the responsible participle, these expressions can be re-written with an explicit relational index in the form of conjunction.

The final layer of adverbial formation, the second of the bracketed structure, is the so-called subordinate clauses in adverbial function, adverbial clauses, or in our termi-nolgy, clausal adverbs. The clausal adverbs are usually led by a variety of logic-expressing subordinate conjunctions. There has been some other measures for the same purpose in the past of English langauge, e.g., the particular conjugation of the verb, or special use of the auxiliary verbs, or the inverted order, or deletion of the conjunctions etc.[7]

Among other subordinate conjunctions, what is most confusing to foreign learners is the conjunction 'that'. 'That' leads a clause that could stand in any of the three cardinal types of sentence components, the syllables. Whereas it leads a clausal noun and as a whole the clause fills the noun syllable almost indiscriminately, the same conjunction leads a clausal adjective so-called relative clause. That-clause also be-comes, without the help of any logic-expressing preposition or other means, a clausal adverb, all its logical nuances remaining implicit in the word 'that' itself, thus 'I am sorry that you did not come' does not explicitly state what is the logical relationship between the state of affairs stated by the main clause and that expressed by the subordinate clause, and it is solely from the semantic context that one imagines 'because' or 'because of the fact' preceding that 'that'. In the classical grammar, the situation was explained as "noun clause led by 'that' refuses prepositions". Some centuries ago in the history of English language, we had such expressions as 'That he be here!' etc., where 'that' should be considered as a conjunction leading a subor-dinate clause whose main clause is suppressed, or 'that' incarnates the appealing force and refuses any superior context.

Thus we conclude the discussion on the make-up of adverb syllables in accordance with analytical procedure. The diversity of the adverb elements, however, requires further classification and explanations even for pedagogical purposes at the level

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7) Clauses led by the so-called relative adverbs are actually adjectival, attributive to the anteced-
ent that happens to be a noun whose meaning is adverbial or a noun forming a portion of an
adverbial element.

perhaps of the lexicon. The first of such problems confronted with is the distinction between the two functions, the adjoining and juxtaposition, the incompatible two distinct orders of affairs down to adjectives is here, in the remote orbit of adverbs, a matter of relativity and of degree.

When we say 'Yes, I do.', does 'yes' adjoin itself onto the 'do' or does it remain independent as an adverb. 'I am not happy' for instance represents another such difficulty, if we recall the former discussion on this matter (cf. 2.5). In the case of 'I only love you', does the adverb 'only' really adjoin itself to some word there or is it an independent element in the syntax attaining a distinct role of an adverbial syllable? If the 'only' ever modifies through adjoining onto a word in the sentence, it cannot but be the verb 'love' that the adverb should be attributing, but never the noun or pronoun. If it does modify, through adjoining, the clause as a whole, which it very well might, there the term 'modify' or 'attribute' becomes loose or at least misleading. 'Go up!' may be considered as in two segments, a predicate verb syllable (intransitive, complete) and a distinct adverb syllable, thus one could say 'Up go!' Or 'up' an adverb here may be such that it cannot stand as syntactical adverb but adjoins itself onto some other element in the sentence, say in this case the verb, thus 'up' attributes a meaning to the verb 'go' forming a new vocabulary item 'go up' more or less as a synonym of 'climb' or 'ascend'. Such undecisive cases do abound. The traditional term 'modify' seems to be too vague and we certainly need a particular term to designate such loose bearings of an adverb element on other parts, or the entirety of the syntax of the sentence.

Another problem with adverb syllables is that curtailing or *evaporation* is apt to take place in the adverbial syllables, especially in the sparse *atmosphere* of the clausal adverbs. 'If it pleases you' thus has shortened itself into 'If you please' then to 'If please' and eventually 'Please', and likewise 'If it is not so' and the like into 'If not' and so on. The majority of conjunctions that behave *as if* they are prepositions are of this type and the diminished, suppressed clause structure can usually be restored without much ado.[8]

All the irregular, curt expressions natives relish, which often foreign learners are forced to swallow as 'idiomatic expressions', may be reconstructed into adverbial element by supplying some prepostions or subordinate conjunctions with some necessary minimal foreign elements. 'They met enemies, but parted friends' may be rewritten, in way of explaining, 'They met as they were enemies and parted as they were friends', and the like. The flexibility and versatility of adverbial elements may be fully adopted whenever such meta-uses and vernacular freaks of the natives are to

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8) Subordinate conjunctions such as 'than', 'as', 'since' have come to be used as prepositions; which fact may be considered to be of this kind of shift.

be taught in some way consistent to the structure of the grammar and syntax we have depended upon.

Finally, it is perhaps a lexical problem, however, but there are such words like 'because', which is an amalgamation of 'by' and 'cause', (or 'in' and 'stead'>'instead') to be followed by 'of something', thus unexplicable in our syntax, and grammatically we can only accomodate such irregular items with historical explanation or with an apology.

4. 5 Parsing Procedure

From pedagogical purposes, we shall introduce a parsing technique for both analysis and sinthesis of English sentences for typical beginners in Japan— the first three years students of the secondary schools, perhaps. For teaching and learning the langauge, the two directions of mental activity must be simultaneously performed, thus anything that has a structure should be given first as a whole and at the same time as the sum of its elements. The analysis may first begin with embryo sentences, un-analysable impetus in vocal expression, but upon entering the realm of the articulate language, the first practice must be done in imperatives with a clear awareness of their inner constitution. The parsing of such sentences into syllables may be administered by appilcation of the parenthsis and other indications, while incessantly referring to the lexicon and the paradigms so far presented. Converse practice of constructing sentences from embryo into complex structure may be done by extending through adjoining or adding of independent adverb syllables also in terms used for parsing.

For some paragraphs to follow, some such markings are tentatively done on the present text itself, not thoroughly, however, but only to give some idea of the practice.[1]

For the predicate verbs, the first element, i. e., the tense-carrying element **should** be strongly marked by such means as using bold-face types, and for any secondary elements of the verbal structure, italicising and other devices **should** *be used*. In the case of the auxiliary elements among the first element, it **could** *be suffixed* with a + indicating that it anticipates another element. 'To' and the root of infinitives **should** + *be hyphenated*. These typographical indications **may** + *be* systematically *used* for verbal structure establishment, conscious and unconscious, even though they **may** + *be* *omitted* from the learners' writing and from the later texts.

All the verbs converted into other functions, the so-called verboids, **may** + *be* all *italicized* so that they **anticipate** their subordinate elements beside *reminding* the

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1) Readers are referred to pp. 127-132 of No. 20 of the present journal for the samples of actual parsing by the use of these markings to a certain depth of analysis. The parsing hereafter in the text itself is done more or less *ad hoc* to bring up one item for one paragraph.

readers that they **are** of verbal origin capable of *bringing* in their subordinate elements, and that they **could**+*be sought* for their type in the lexicon under the *heading* of the original verbs.

The noun syllables may be parenthecised between the pair, [and], from outside into the inside, [the outer-most parentheses] are thus made to indicate [the eventual extent of the syllables, standing in either of the positions, subject, object or complement, and perhaps any noun element that stands appositive to those.] [Appositive relations] may need [a separate grammatical explanations which we shall relegate from the discussion for a while].   In the parsing practice [a sign ↑___↑] might be employed to indicate the identity between the appositive members, thus:

[it] is wrong [to-lie] = [to-lie] is wrong.

[Any lower noun element] may be likewise marked off when it helps to grasp the span regardless of their complete syllablehood. [The noun elements within noun elements] could be handled as [infinitely recursive inner structure] and [the analysis] may go as far as required, thus, to recall an earlier example, (cf. p. 48)

[[[[[book] cover] cover] cover] cover] cover].

Adjective syllables, the complement, should be marked off by another kind of parenthesis, thus ⟨ and ⟩, primarily only for those adjective syllables in complement position, that is to say, ignoring those adjective elements that are attributively functioning within a noun element, i. e., adjoining adjective elements including subordinate verbal structures. Gradually, however, the use of adjoining adjectives may be marked off by the same parenthesis, respecting their nature as adjective, even though they are not in the position of the syntactical complement, thus:

[I] am ⟨happy⟩

[⟨the⟩ [⟨happy⟩ [man] ⟨sleeping there⟩] is [⟨my⟩ [brother]].

Adverb elements as well as adverbial syllables could be set aside by another kind of parentheses, (and); they can be used for both adverbial syllables of the sentence and other levels of adverbial elements—distinction here being not as strict as that in the case of adjective elements and adjective syllables above.—thus:

(Yes), [you] are (now) ⟨ready⟩

(Yes), [you] are (only) ⟨joking⟩ (on [⟨that⟩ [theme]]) or

(Yes), [you] are (only) ⟨joking (on [⟨that⟩ [theme]])⟩

(There) **will**+*be* [multifold bracketings and parentheses] (in a single system) but [what **is** essential] **is** (always) [the outermost, maximum span of the segmented elements so delimited]. (When the outermost parenthesis **is** *attained*,) [it] (usually) **is** (also) [the frontier for any syllable] and [syllables] **are** [[the final elements ⟨to a sentence structure] ⟨that **constitute** either of the five patterns of the English sentence⟩]. (If a string of words **does**+not *reduce* itself into either of the five patterns), [some-

thing] is ⟨wrong⟩, therefore [it] is not ⟨valid or complete⟩ (as an expression). (Inverse-
ly) (if one is *to-compose* a sentence in English), [the basic skeleton of the sentence]
must+*comply* (with the five patterns of sentence structure each member of which
can+*be extended*,) (with addition of adverbials,) (toward an infinite degree of perfection
in the expression *incarnating* the impetus, the cause of the expression). **Start**,
therefore, (with an syntactical algebra,) (first *filling* each term of the theorem with
single words,) then **extend** [the words] (into any composite phrases as far as one
desires) (according to the paradigm), then **add** [⟨as many⟩ [adverbial syllables] (as one
chooses)) (until the speaker is *satisfied* with what is *being said* thereby.)

(For [younger beginners],) [the samples ⟨*analysed* and *composed* in the lessons⟩]
should+*be* ⟨clear⟩ both (in the structure) and (in the meaning,) ⟨free (of ambiguity
or vagueness.)⟩ (Until [they] **are** (firmly) *established* (on [⟨consistent, simple and
explicit⟩ [examples]])), [they] **should**+not *be exposed* (to [⟨ambivalent, implicit, nuance-
charged, attitudinal⟩ [substances]]), ((even) in [the name ⟨of [the realism and utility
⟨immediately in view⟩]])).

[⟨[Foreign language]⟩ [learning]] is [⟨a⟩ [training ⟨in [formula operations]⟩]]
(before [anything else]). [It] is ⟨*fated* ⟨*to-be* ⟨unnatural and impractical⟩⟩⟩. [It] is
[an acquisition ⟨of or acomodation ⟨into [a foreign convention]⟩⟩ (until [it] **becomes**
[⟨the⟩ [⟨second⟩ [nature]]] (by habits)). [The ⟨human⟩ [expereince ⟨of a language,
⟨native or otherwise⟩⟩,] is (in [the experience ⟨of [those operations]⟩]), ((not) (in
[what is *conveyed* thereby])). [The [teacher's role] ⟨there⟩]] is (not) [the impersoni-
fication, ⟨perfect or imperfect⟩, ⟨of the [⟨free⟩ ⟨natural⟩ native-speakers⟩]], [which]
seems (to [⟨the⟩ [learners]]) [⟨an⟩ [⟨unsurmountable⟩ [art]]; and [⟨the⟩ [teacher]],
[⟨its⟩ [dubious example]], is but [that ⟨of [the mediator or the coacher ⟨[who] **stands**
(on [⟨the⟩ [side] ⟨of [⟨the⟩ [learners]⟩), (*sharing* and *explianing* [⟨the⟩ [difficulty]
⟨[which] [he] **had**+*surmounted*]), and (*indorsing* [⟨human⟩ [feeling]] (to [[what]
is (otherwise) [⟨an⟩ [⟨inhuman⟩ [formula and operation]]]))]]. [He] **must**+*be*
(there) (as [⟨the⟩ [⟨skillful⟩ [operataor] ⟨of [⟨the⟩ ⟨abstract⟩ [formula]⟩ but ⟨with
[plenty ⟨of [feelings ⟨[that] **accrue** [to [⟨the⟩ [⟨level⟩ ⟨of [⟨his⟩ [mastery ⟨of
[⟨the⟩ language⟩⟩]⟩⟩. [⟨The⟩ [role ⟨of [⟨the⟩ [informant-teacher] and [⟨the⟩ [me-
diator-teacher]] **should**+*be* ⟨distinct,⟩ ((even) (though [it] **may**+*be* ⟨*played* (by [⟨a⟩
[⟨single⟩ [person]]⟩)).

Chapter V　Grammar and Vocabulary

5.1　Whereas the direction of analysis, in principle, has been so far always from
the totality of the sentence through levels of its constituents, down to words, defining
the lower terms in the terms already stipulated and known, we will in the following
sections, take up those phenomena we observed in the make-up of syllables for their

own sake and formulate them for better explanations independen+ of the eventual syntax. We will describe what we managed to extract from scattered observations hitherto, i. e., the general tendency of words, and that of groups of words, to form themselves into higher structures, i. e., the synthetic grammar without reference to the syntax that anticipates the final totality. The synthetic grammar, the tendency of elements to cohere and repell each other has been taken for granted and the conventional classification of words has been used without re-defining since we cannot escape from the irony of relativity in representation of the reality, and it is only for the sake of the consistency that we tried to describe and explain the state of affairs in monoral terms. Then we might discuss, in some details, the matter of lexicon. The lexicon is there considered as the organized vocabulary with necessary indices for scanning and calling. The indexing system of the lexicon will be such that it will connect the syntactical categories and vocabularistic classifications with the class-names serving as keys between the two systems.
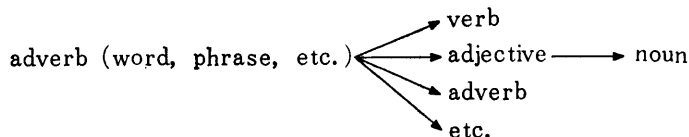
5. 2   There seems to be in English two types of cohesive tropism found among the individual linguistic elements from the level of phoneme-morpheme up through that of words to those of phrases and clauses, of which the 'words' are contained in conventional dictionaries as well as in the theoretical lexicon of the modern gram-mars. One of such affairs at the level of words, i. e., below that of syllables and above that of phonemes, is the 'adjoining'; another, the 'bracketing'. Individual words cluster to form a higher order of structure through these two types of operations without concern to the eventual syntactical roles the product will perform. The product is classified and operated, though not as immediately as words are, on the basis of 'grammatical', not 'syntactical' recognition of the structure of the categories involved.

(1) The adjoining

The adjoining can be expressed as $a \times b \rightarrow a$ or b, where two distinct elements a and b belonging to disinct classes of the lexicon merge together to form a structure which, in turn, belongs to either of the classes to which the first two members belong (if the combination were to be considered as a new word.) Thus 'big', an adjective, and 'man', a noun, are adjoined to make up a cluster 'big man', no longer a word but a phrase, which can be converted into a word, say 'giant' (it can, at least, be referred to by a pronoun as if the combination were a word.) The product is not a variety in the degree of bigness of the adjective 'big', but a variety of men so qualified—a noun. A similar tendency seems to govern pairs of other kinds of elements, e. g., an adverb 'very' may adjoin itself onto 'big', an adjective, forming 'very big' a phrase, synonymous to, say, 'huge', an adjective, for instance. The phrase can adjoin itself onto a noun 'man' as if the phrase were a single-word adjective, thus forming

a phrasal noun 'very big man' which is capable of being, nevertheless, referred to by 'he', synonymous again to an unknown noun.

About the adjoining of individual words, a simple law may be stated categorically, thus; anything that is adjective adjoins itself onto anything that is noun (corollary; noun is attributively qualified only by adjective; anything that qualifies or delimits a noun is adjective; if something does qualify a noun, that something is an adjective, etc.) to produce a phrasal noun. Adverbs, likewise, modify anything except nouns (corollary: if something refuses to be modified by an adverb, that something is a noun; an adverb can 'modify' or 'strongly affect' another adverb, or clause or sentence, or any other segments such as prepositions and conjunctions). The product belongs to the class of the 'adjoined' not the 'adjoining'. The relation between noun, adjective and adverb in respect to their mutual cohesion may be schematically expressed as below. (This also parenthetically applies to the other levels of elements, i. e., phrase and clause.)

$$
\text{adverb (word, phrase, etc.)} \Longleftarrow
\begin{array}{l}
\nearrow \text{verb} \\
\longrightarrow \text{adjective} \longrightarrow \text{noun} \\
\searrow \text{adverb} \\
\searrow \text{etc.}
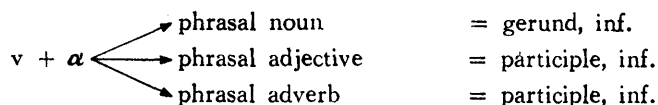\end{array}
$$

(2) **The bracketing**

The bracketing is another routine in English grammar for clustering of individual words. It is again divided into two kinds; the first is an operation through which those structures bracketed by preposed explicit words are formed into a unit equivalent to a word, while the second is those structures formed on verbs in their derivative forms and their subordinate members. In the first type, the preposed elements, unlike the adjoining, do not adjoin themselves to lose their categorical identity as adjectives and adverbs do to the following elements; they are like the beginning member of a pair of brackets or parenthesis[1]. A preposition indicates the beginning of a structure (containing the noun called traditionally the 'object' of the preposition, and the product thereof being either phrasal adjective or phrasal

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1) The preposed indexing system is prevelent in English not limited here only. The articles are always the indices, some way or other, of the beginning of a noun element containing a noun, while certain kinds of conjunctions are always indicative of a question (such as interrogative pronouns and adverbs.) This is a particularly interesting feature for any Japanese learner in whose language the system is just the opposite. In Japanese, these indices are persistently post-posed. In English sentences, two or three folds of invisible parenthesis-closed do converge toward the end of any given unit, especially at the fullstop of a sentence, thus: [f+e+d [c+b [a]]] while in Japanese the order is just the opposite, thus: [[[z] y+x] w+v+u].

adverb, never a phrasal preposition.)   The products are called 'prepositional phrases' which coincide with the traditional designation of the matter. Likewise a subordinate conjunction indicates the beginning of a structure containing a clause—hence the name—which is either of the three kinds, clausal noun, clausal adjective or clausal adverb, but never a 'phrasal conjunction'.

The bracketing may be expressed in a general term as: $a+b \rightarrow c$ where **a** is either a preposition or a subordinate conjunction and **b**, a noun element when **a** is a preposition, or a clause when **a** is a subordinate conjunction.

The verbal bracketing, the second type of bracketing is one of the phenomena among a series of words we have from time to time, mentioned as 'subordination'. Any word classified as verb in the conventional lexicon is such that has the power to perform the routine of forming a clause or sentence but also doing what is to be called the 'sub-routine' of the verb itself. In its 'sub-routine', the verb not only undergoes a derivative form-shift, but takes α, the 'subordinate' elements, and as a whole constitutes a unit whose function is determined by the derivation of the verb itself. While undergoing derivative form-shift, the verbs of such structured elements appear in speech in either of the derivative forms; gerund, infinitive, or participle, and as a whole becomes either of the three functions, noun, adjective or adverb It could be simply formulated as:

$$v + \alpha \begin{cases} \text{phrasal noun} & = \text{gerund, inf.} \\ \text{phrasal adjective} & = \text{participle, inf.} \\ \text{phrasal adverb} & = \text{participle, inf.} \end{cases}$$

where α stands for whatever that follows the verb in analogy of a predicate verb. The gerund with its subordinate elemetns may be considered as a whole a phrasal noun (not a clause), and be used as a noun syllable in any syntax while the infinitive and its subordinate elements may fill the position of noun syllable, adjective syllable or adverb syllable; the participles with their subordinate elements may be found filling the position of the adjective syllables (in complement) or adverbial syllables (usually called 'participial construction').

The subordinate structures as the adjective syllables standing in a complement position were already described in the previous chapters (Chapter III and IV), despite the current pedagogical and grammatical trend.

Another type of subordinate relation is found in the so-called subordinate clauses. We consider the subordnation in this sense, however, as coming under the first type of the bracketing above. It would be more precise to say that subordinate relation is found in the so-called subordinate clauses which are often indexed by subordinate conjunctions.   The modern term 'embedding' may perhaps better explain the situation, and the embedding, of course, is recursive; a subordinate element, clause or phrase,

may contain another subordinate element which in turn, might contain still another, and so on. We need not be too far concerned, in such cases, with the degree or folds of such subordinate situations; we will call every recursive routine as 'subordinate' in which we can even include the object and other elements of the prepostional phrases[2].

The synthetic grammar at work throughout English on the level of vocabulary may be simply tabulated as follows;

grammar	first term	second term	product (by kind)
Adjoining	adjective	noun	equal to the second term (noun)
	adverb	anything but noun	equal to the second term (anything but noun)
Bracketing	preposition	noun	⎧adjective ⎩adverb
	conjunction	CLAUSE	⎧noun ⎨adjective ⎩adverb
	derivative verbs ⎡– gerund ⎢– participle ⎣– infinitive	SUBORDINATE ELEMENT	⎡– noun ⎢– adj.—(adv.) ⎢ ⎧noun ⎣–⎨adjective ⎩adverb

Synthetic grammar should be given to the learners as far as possible in its totality, as a set of local rules, in the proper degree of simplification. Practice on the grammar, as in *any other* area, should be administered with a single purpose at a time, e. g., if the lesson is dedicated to the use of prepostions, the objects of the prepositions could be reduced to initials or even to pictures. If possible, to practice it independent of the sentence environment will be more effective.[3]

When local practice is sufficiently digested by the learners, the incorporation of such local units into full syntax will be very easily done. It is the role of the teacher to make such practice meaningful and interesting.

5. 3 Now tnat the two kinds of self-existing local gravity constituting the cohesive tropism of individual elements in the light of atomistic views, have been described, we are ready for any minor grammatical rules to ensue. We, however, resume the

2) This is to dispel one of the confusions that a phrase is lower than clause as a unit of grammatical structure or as a level of structure, hence a noun adjoined retro-actively by a clausal adjective has no name to be given; is it a phrase or a clause? One of the reasons we used the term 'element' or 'unit' is to avoid the conflict of these terms.

3) For instance, with place names as the objects of the prepostions; teachers can have the learners practice every preposition, without completing the expression into a full sentence, thus: from P(aris) to L(ondon), after L(ondon) before R(ome), etc,

analysis, for separating and identifying the ultimate constituents of the syllables, the words, from syntactical approach. As a matter of fact, we have no set definition for words in English, except that it is generally taken for granted that words are the reality, the accepted members of the vocabulary, and that any sub-division below words, and more than any structure above words are no longer considered as items of vocabulary. We might for pedagogical consideration, concede to accept 'words' as concrete, self-evident final reality, operatable and referrable at the level of the so-called vocabulary and proceed accordingly.

The words are actually, however, garnered not as the results of syntactical analysis but from the observation or from the reduction of the real uses of langauge. To comply with the logical continuity of our line of exposition, however, we are forced to say that words are reached at levels of analysis of sentences, and such words do constitute a population called vocabulary. While, for synthetic grammar, words are the given from which to begin the synthesis, for our syntactic analysis, words and vocabulary are the outermost frontier of its process. Thus, if we remember, the words were obtained by finding the single words that fill by themselves the known function of a syllable of a known syntax of a sentence. In other words, the words, the molecules in the physics of language, may be separated from each other and identified as such by analysing the given syllables into meaningful segments, but stopping short when any further segmentation is to deprive the segment of its integrity as a unit—identifiable, operatable and referrable as a meaningful unit of the original syntax, (each segment representing a segment and function of the meaning of the given sentence as known.)

So it is practically and theoretically preferrable to begin with syllables consisting of elements that cannot be syntactically analysed any further, i. e., the words. If we acknowledge a piece of speech as independent and valid, e. g., /əigonəsli:p/, then it may be analysable into any segments down to phoneme there represented, but syntactically, that is to say, if we know what the utterance means, we can distinguish in it first two segments, /əi/ and the rest. Then the latter may further break into /gonə/ and /sli:p/ rather than any way otherwise—we can identify those three pieces as units in other combinations, likewise meaningful; we can operate these three units in comparable syntax, and refer to any of these by other words and so on. Further division may only yield phonemic elements, the atoms, so to say, neutral and irrelevant to that particular meaning-form continuum for which /əigonəsli:p/, as we took it for granted, stands. Thus we may say that the utterance, if it is a valid sentence, consists of these three words.

We are here to identify and determine the words, the vocabulary items, by syntactical procedures, that is, to designate the category by the already known terms, thus,

by the way the syllables are made up eventually of the words. The individual words then may be classed and arranged according to the nature, manner and the degree of the role they play eventually in the syllables and other superior contexts. The eventual dividents of the analysis at this level may be syntactically classified and marked, and formulated into a table, an inventory, of the vocabulary items, i. e., words, in our case, in which the classes contain members who share the same syntactical functions, which is represented by the designations of the classes so designated (so-called 'phrase markers'.)

As the static reservoir of memory elements in the simulated English speaking machine, on the other hand, the vocabulary can be systematically organized for ready scanning and calling from the programme through the keys in the form of the class-designations of words, if we recall our analogy in the beginning of the chapter, and what we have obtained as the result of the analysis down to the level of words may also represent the structure of the memory reservoir. Perhaps we might institute, after all, a term 'lexicon', thus, as the vocabulary of a langauge classified systematically into sub-classifications down to the desired level of fineness, with index for each classification, tentative or final, intimating the kind of so-called 'slot' each of the classified group will fit when called. The classification may be so arranged that they constitute a hierarchy for easier scanning. Some classes are formed quite closed as those called 'pronoun', 'preposition', 'conjunction'—those traditionally called 'functional words' while the majority of the word population comes under such open classes as 'noun', 'adjective', 'adverb' and of course, 'verbs', which might be further classified into sub-groups. Those open classes may accept new members *ad hoc*, while the closed classes refuse neologism. The labels, the class or sub-class names are the keys for scanning and calling because they are instituted according to the way they behave when brought into a context. The corollary of this set-up is that as long as a word is chosen from the proper—proper according to the demand of the syntax—the product is grammatical and that even if that word is exchanged with other members of the same class or subclass, the syntax will not suffer from the exchange.

Presented here is a simplified skeleton of the lexicon with a limited number of membership for each class and sub-class for a level of learners, in our case, for the third year learners, aged 15 or so. The vocabulary items, with their basic uses herein cited are all those included in volume I, II, and III of an authorized text book currently in use.[1] The vertical sub-classifications are more or less syntactical and grammatical while the horizontal divisions are morphological.

As observable in the lexicon above, the first major classification is basically binary. The English vocabulary divides itself into two kinds, syntactical and grammatical, or

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1) actual words are here omitted.

SAMPLE LEXICON (simplified)

	class	part of speech	sub-class		words
SYNTACTICAL	NOUN	noun	countables		
			uncountables		
		pronoun	[nominatives] [2]		
			[accusative (reflexive)]		
	ADJECTIVE	adjective	attributive		
			[delimiting] [3]		
	ADVERB	adverb	additive		
			predicative		
	VERB	verb	intransitive	complete	
				dependent	
			transitive	accusative	
				dative	
				causative	
		auxiliary verb	[modals]		
			[*have* +]		
GRAMMATICAL	PREPOSITION	[preposition]			
	CONJUNCTION	conjunction	[subordinate]		
			[coordinate]		
	INTERJECTION	interjection			
	MISCELLANEOUS				

'full' words and 'empty' words, the latter being occasionally called 'functional' words. The syntactical group contains those words that can fill, on our principle, the four types of syllables in their single state while the grammatical group is of those words that by themselves do not fill these syntactical functions in sentences. [4]

The syntacticals are divided into four kinds parallel to those of the syllables, i. e., Noun, Adjective, Adverb and Verb, while the grammaticals contain those words that are always dependent on some other words, especially on those syntactical ones. The second group contains prepositions, (anticipating nouns), and conjunctions (anticipa-

2) sub-classes in brackets are those 'closed' groups
3) articles, pronominal adjectives are included.
4) hence the delimiting adjectives seem to slip away into 'grammatical'.

ting clauses and sentences.) (Auxiliary verbs may be said to be included in this group as they anticipate the root, past participle or infinitive of verbs.) The miscellaneous may contain any that fail to fall in the two major divisions above, together with the interjections. Some of the delimiting adjectives are so limited in their application that they cannot stand alone in complement position, which fact is in conflict with the description above. They are included under the syntacticals, notwithstanding. These contain articles and other pronominal adjectives whose genitive takes different forms from that of the nominative.

The structure of the lexicon to be administered to the learners may vary in fineness according to the level of the learners in the langauge. The most important is the fact that the lexicon should be complete, self-explanatory and clear-cut besides being convenient for scanning and calling for syntactical purposes. The headings must therefore be made with full consideration of their relation with the grammar and the syntax. In teaching the lexicon, the meaning of each vocabulary item, of course, is one thing, but the position a word belongs to in the total lexicon is far more important; that is to say, the difference between the lexicon and dictionary should be made clear at the onset. A dictionary, of an alphabetical or the 'thesaurus' entry, may be attached to the lexicon so that a new item could be looked up and be located in the lexicon, and if necessary, the definition and connotation, etc., may be given to each entry, and if there is a definite need, a native-tongue explanation or counterpart, may be attached.

No matter how far simplified, the learners must be given the complete, though not perfect, lexicon before they are given individual vocabulary items one by one. The learners must be able, or made able, above all and first of all, to locate where the word in question belongs, and, therefore, how it behaves in a given context, before he is intimated with what it refers to in an actual context and situation.

Implanting the lexicon into the learners will be done better through the practice of 'calling' and scanning rather than through memorization, or attaching them to some near vernacular terms. The lexicon should be divided and cross-referenced in its own term for an easier call, for a better grasp, through the appeal to the intelligence of the learners even in this more or less static phase of langauge learning.

In teaching, for instance, the division into two syntactically meaningful sub-classifi-cations, e. g., countable and uncountable, of nouns, the teacher could ask the learners to do it themselves. He could ask them to which group the given new noun (with what they refer to already explained) apparently belongs, before showing the ready-made classification, and according to the result obtained from them, he could mark those nouns on which their judgement and the real English classification fail to meet, as the sort to be relegated or given special attention to. It must always be the

'normal' ones that must be taught first. For instance 'water' should be taught as uncoutnable (not because the learners think it to be so, but according to the frequency and for later convenience) until countable 'water' is really felt in need in the teaching circumstances.[3]

We might consider likewise the teaching of plural-making phonemic rules for the countables. We could show the learners two or three obvious and regular cases and then have the learners guess for the other new ones, more than 70% will be correctly guessed, regardless of the meaning of each word. The learners for themselves will solve the problem depending upon the analogy and ability to induce from what is known. When 'place' becomes 'places' with a /iz/ sound for the plural, it is more than easy to guess that the plural of 'case' becomes 'cases' with a /iz/, regardless of the nationality of the learners.

The classification of words should be attained rather than just enumerated and imposed upon for memory[4]. It is always the intellectual, reductive faculty rather than the receptive and retaining faculty that has to be encouraged and fostered. In the case of teaching verbs, perhaps we could introduce a new verb with a proper context and necessary explanations and then ask pupils to which type the verb belongs. Explanations might help but often it might as well mislead, especially supplying matching vocabulary items of the learners' native tongue will lead to confusion and difficulty. The distinction is already hard, why should one try to double it with that

3) We could teach the countable nouns first in plural instead of teaching both at the same time in singular and ask the learners to distinguish. Teach them in plural first. Arrange the text book so that every first appearance of countables will be in plural, then the learners will know when plural index is missing, then only some explanations will be given. In the case of uncountable nouns, there is no need of such considerations—they simply do not become plural; they either take or do not take delimiting elements, e. g., articles or pronouns in genitive; there is no inter-locking system there.

4) The verb 'get' must be taught, for instance, as complete transitive first, refraining from teaching such ambiguous uses as 'get up', 'get well', 'get on', etc. The learners will no way suffer from not knowing such secondary uses of the verb 'get', at least for the first few years of the beginning English. It is entirely wrong to believe that these combinations are easy because they are made up of simple words and to believe that these are useful because they are the terms expresing the affairs of daily simple life. What is at stake here is that grammatical structure therein involved is so sophysticated and eliptic that native themselves cannot explain, except by expressing their feeling about it. Unfortunately it is these so-called 'useful' idioms our youngs are forced to learn while living in their own country. Children are not interested in knowing the way how such commonplace acts are being said in a foreign langauge, UNLESS it is a key to know something more important and useful about the mechamism of the langauge. (Discussed also in Chapter III.)

of another. No matter what the method, the normal uses of the verb should be first admini-
stered until it is established. Wait till other sophisticated uses, which teachers love
to teach, can no longer be suppressed even in the borrowed reality of the classroom.
If different uses are taught of a single verb, intending to teach the contrast, the
result will often be only a blurred identity, or an image of something loose in
between; it will not distinguish one from the other but rather equalize and fuse. To teach
a contrast, teach the predominant one (or either) first until it is fixed, and then only, the
other. What is the norm will often be hard to decide, but indeterminate order is
even worse than picking up the wrong one for the norm. The norm first and then the
deviations must be the golden rule. Again, what is the norm? Consistency, simplicity
and explicitness are the three qualities for the norm, not limited to transformational
and generative grammar.

   Naive learners of a foreign language are often obsessed with the meagerness of
their vocabulary, hence how to relieve them of that fear is the first step. In their
native language experience, the grammatical difficulties had been early surmounted and
forgotten and the difficulty they faced, as long as they can remember, was chiefly in
the mastery of the 'learned' vocabulary items, and hence they tend to think that
vocabulary is the language. In the Western communities, langauges are 'enate'
prominently in syntax leaving the vocabulary difference alone as something that strikes
the novice. They believe erraneously that the difficulty they confront in learning
a foreign tongue is that of vocabulary, not of syntax and grammar. They start
teaching themselves the counterpart native vocabulary items to each new foreign
word they learn and they think they know the word, and the langauge. The memory
they acquire and accumulate thus is of the tie between the native word and that of
the foreign one (which has no promise of identity) but never the tie between the
word and the thing indicated within the linguistic system of the language being
learned. So it follows, as they believe, that unless they can operate the words in
native terms mentally, they cannot operate the foreign words. If we could make the
learners (or perhaps the teachers themselves) realize that vocabulary is more or less
incidental to expression and to operation and that what is most essential is the
command in the operation of the elements of the language, we could perhaps dispell
their fear and illusion. For the begginners the curiosity for foreign vocabulary is
one thing, but that towards the operation in foreign formula is another and more
essential, and only a good teacher can make the latter lasting and productive. Use
of pictures and tentative replacements, e. g., uninhibited uses of native terms in the
place of foreign words as *ad hoc* dummies in operation of some formula, may be
freely adopted with new insights. Use of initials for full words may help in practice
in symbol operations. Give ample practice in emotion-free, formula-like expressions

and operations banishing implicational semantic overtones as much as possible. Meaning-free operations of formula in purely explicit terms must be carried on for its own sake before the formula can be used for expressing emotional, stylistic, semantic charges. Stylistic overtones are only secondary, and often irrelevant and detrimental to the learning process of the structure.

In the mastery of a foreign language, therefore, the intellectual curiosity should first be directed to how something is said, the langauge itself, rather than to what is said thereby. Ideal balance between those two types of interest may vary according to the age of the learners, circumstances, etc.

Lexicon in our terminology, is thus a complex of the vocabulary and grammar, and the expression of such matters and state of affairs inevitably takes the form of paradigm through which the lexicon is connected to the syntax. The static memory reservoir of the elements in the simulated langauge machine, however, should be implanted in the mentality of the learners through intellectual grasp of the total sitaution, rather than the fixed items collected haphazardly to an infinite quantity. We should like to at least propose that every textbook should be supplied with a lexicon containing the entire vocabulary used in the course covered by the textbook.

5.4 If a native speaker comes to school without knowing how to speak and hear, or understand, to say nothing of how to read and write, he is a 'problem', a case beyond the realm of language. The adult non-native learners come to school, each adequate and normal as an individual with an established native language, with his brain closed up to any intruding foreign, conflicting and redundant system. Such is the basic difference between the teaching of verbal and literary culture to the natives and teaching of non-native language to adult or semi-dult foreign learners. A foreigner learns a non-native language almost *in defiance* of his native language, and the teaching method should be devised from that very distinction, rather than simply adapting and modifying the teaching method and material for the native learners. At school natives learn how to make their habits into custom, while foreigners learn how to make foreign custom, into habits. The function of the teachers in the two distinct types of teaching situation must also be clearly distinguished. The teachers themselves, above all, should know what role he is playing in the given teaching sitaution with given learners. Let us ask ourselves why similar textbooks and materials as those administered to the native children should be given to adult learners of a foreign language. It is irrelevant, unless the learners themselves are of that age, living in that coutnry with the same amount of experience in that langauge, namely; they must be natives. Should it not be better to conceive a course of foreign language completely calculated backward from the desired level and model, definitely and arbitrarily set, of a simulated language in approximation of the natural language to

the very beginning, instead of placing the objective and the goal at an infinitely perfect mastery of the language as it is.

It is not necessary that what is achieved at each level should be true to the corresponding actual state of the language as performed among the natives. The product at each stage of learning may well be tentative and incomplete, and it can be even unnatural and untrue if compared to the actual state of the language, as long at there is the promise that the product, upon the eventual completion, turns out to be a necessarily close approximation of the langauge. Since to learn a foreign language is, by definition and reality, an unnatural endeavour, anyway, to start with, why should we try to be true and natural at every stage of its progress before the eventual attainment of perfection desired.

The age of the learners will be of drastic importance, therefore, for the teaching and learning of non-native languages. If a foreign language is to be taught to a subject before the completion of his native language competence, the learners are actually exposed to two conflicting native languge media, and the teaching technique for that particular age in a particular set-up must be separately devised and administered.

The apparent versimilitude, for the sake of utility, of the samples in the textbook and in the lessons is false. For an eleven year old Japanese boy, for instance, is it not better for him to know that 'I', 'am' and 'a boy' together constitute a statement, and that 'I' and 'am' are each of distinct function and identity, belonging to different classes of the lexicon, in spite of the fact that boys of that age in the native English speaking community will never come to think of that and utter them separately? But the tendency and policy of the teaching in this country seems to be that since it is not realistic to teach 'I' and 'am' separately, they should rather be taught as 'I'm', the contracted form, which will be true to the real speech of the boy of that age in an English-spoken community, and it is simpler, and therefore immediately useful and effective. Why should this boy living in Japan be expected to pass off as an native English boy while in Japan with no immediate prospect of using that expression. He will be far better off with the knowledge that 'I' and 'am' are distinct structural elements well separate and operatable. It is more useful for him to know that these two words are distinct for understanding the rest of the English grammar, than to learn it as an undistinguishable corpus to be swallowed. What he learns today must be *useful* for tomorrow's lesson, not for the supposed real situation beyond the classroom. Such a short-sighted pragmatism is found very often and it is doing detriment to the formation of the logical, structured way of comprehending English, or any language. Such a local half-truth as contracted 'I'm' should not be taught at the very onset. The so-called progressive tense is being taught prematurely,

and the 'I am going to study...' formula as a version of future tense is even worse. A boy could be far better off linguistically without such a freak formula, in spite of the usefulness and frequency of the expression in real English life, that is, if he lives in it at the time, or when he finds himself speaking in English after attaining a certain level of mastery.

To flatter the childish fancy of the young learners by words or things foreign and new to them, for cultural exoticism, or by topics and stories in the textbook, e. g., AEsop's parables, etc., may save the classroom boredom for a while, but it does not go very far. It is admitted that young learners should get new, worthy, interesting information from the text itself, no matter what subject, even if it were a textbook on learning English. School textbooks have no excuse for being banal and stupid, even as a work-book. The operation in the foreign langauge itself may be too abstract a mental practice and young mentality may not find it enticing. But mathematics teachers know how to teach youngsters the multiplication tables interestingly, even though it may not have enough intellectual interest and challenge to the children. The intellectual interest of the learners should, however, be directed to *the langauge itself,* the operation in non-native terms, not in the thing which can be experssed in terms of any language, native or otherwise, even though the content of the text should be made at least intellectually interesting.

The acquisition of a second language is basically the acquisition of the formula and of the operation of the formula so acquired and of the lexical items duly classified and sub-classified ready to be referred to and taken into the operation; what remains is the accumulation of expereince, the trial-and-error process towards efficiency and the real feeling should acrue only from that experience. One of the inhibitions from which the Japanese learners suffer is not the alleged shyness of perfectionism, but from the fact that they are so firmly convinced with the freedom and feeling with which they handle their own langauage that they are defident of the second language unless (and until, they think) they have the same fluency and real 'feel' in the use of the second, or at least they anticipate eventual mastery of the second language to be something of that level, thus anything short of that is not only inadequate but also false... In fact, no one gets or anticipates that much of confidence and feeling in the use of a second langauge anyway; he is only content with and conceding to what little he has and what little communication established; but the Japanese learners, thanks to the anti-realism of their compatriot teachers, are dissatisfied and discouraged with what they have not attained. Teachers ought to realize that the real feeling in a foreign language comes not only from the real experience with the natives (which the teachers are supposed to have in plenty), but also from the accumulation of experience in operating the language in the imagined reality through 'empathy'

(which he can supply to the class.) Teachers are there to supply the reality in otherwise empty formula operations.

After all, English teaching here must first correct this attitudinal error. Langauge, native or acquired, actually is not conveying what one feels he is conveying. What it conveys is what language can convey, the formula, and all the rest that is not conveyed but still somewhat takes effect is translinguistic affairs, something beyond the ken of linguistic analysis. It is as if to say, that we ought to know that language does not communicate all, but we must be thankful of the fact of how much it can do. In the learning of a foreign language, therefore, one must be resigned as to the kind of real (which is often mistaken for native) feeling in foreign language performance, and be rid of that illusion back-formed from the feeling one has in his native language performance. It is better to be content with the accomplishment of an artifical expression not too far off the mark than to despair in the failure of attaining the imagined native perfection. The desired feeling will be self-attained by accumulating such experience of one's own, not from illusory anticipation of a spontaneous native freedom and feeling. And when there is enough self-earned experience, an illusion of the real feeling will form itself around it, and perhaps much of what illusion he has, he shares with the natives.[5]

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5) to be continued.