日英両国語比較（XXIV）

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A COMPARATIVE STUDY FOR JAPANESE IN LEARNING ENGLISH

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Abstract

　Language was intented for all who use it as a means of inspired and realistic communication with one another. In this paper the first inspired "SPEAKING verb" was taken out from the Bible and surveyed in terms of semantic roles and grammatical relations. Wondering about what each word linking together means, we see word by word in relation to the whole. In the case of English grammar, the clause was converted from the *Direct Speech* to the *Indirect Speech* according to the theory of conversion of *Voice*. In the form of Indirect Speech of biblical English, *that*‑clause beginning with *there* is the subordinate clause, which is a constituent of or depends on its *superordinate*, while this *that*‑clause becomes a constituent of or dependent on its *superordinate* clause ending with the SPEAKING verb. Such a sentence‑like construction included within another sentence is what we call "EMBEDDING" in terms of generative grammar. In the sentence of English there is a superordinate related to another clause in the whole sentence as a MATRIX SENTENCE. In grammatical theory there must be a relatinship between two clauses as a relation of part to whole. The *that* clause beginning with *there* is what we call EXISTENTIAL *there*‑clause. In this paper it is insisted that that Existential there cannot be used as subject in any case. Some grammarians say that that Existential *there* can be used as subject. An approach to Existential *there* of *CGEL* researched and presented by RQ., SG., GL. and JS. is presented here.The formula of the Existential clause beginning with *there* is converted from the basic or original clause. In this essay it is claimed that the basic function of the word *there* is a part of speech or word class which modifies verbs, adjectives and other adverbs. We discussed the problem of *the subject* in the existential sentence with *there* and we noticed that we must look more carefully into this problem in the case of "*the subject* in the existential sentence." The word *there* itself is primarily the meaning of *location* and function of *adverb*.

Key Words: Speaking Verb, Direct Speech, Indirect Speech, Voice, Superordinate, Embedding, Matrix Sentence, Existential there, Adverb.

There are, perhaps, a great many kinds of languages in the world, and no kind is without meaning.[1]

T. Semantic Roles of Verbs Associated with Grammatical Relations

Ⅰ． A Speaking Verb（type）— **"say"**

　Language, which was given to human beings by the Creator, was intended for all who use it as a means of inspired and realistic communication[2] with one another. The first

inspired "SPEAKING verb (type) was shot out from the mouth of the Creator, e.g. *And God said, "Let there be light"; and there was light.*[3] This SPEAKING verb is playing a leading role in language activity[4] and competency[5] in our everyday life. According to R. M. W. Dixon, the verb "say" belongs to the group of "SPEAKING‑d, the REPORT subtype, set (i)."[6] Dixon also points out that there are four semantic roles associated with SPEAKING verbs—the Speaker, the Addressee (s), the Message, and the Medium (language or speech‑style used)[7] In other words SPEAKING verbs have the semantical connection with the Speaker, the Addressee, the Message, and the Medium, and they will complete the syntactical connection. There might be a regular connection between semantic roles and syntactic relations. In the case of the above example, the SPEAKING verb "*say* (past tense form: *said*)" is the only verb in the main clause, the Speaker is a Noun Phrase [cited hereafter as NP.]. The verb "say" in the main clause combines two functions: it acts both as a transitive subject [R.M.W. Dixon employs the abbreviatory letters for it, that is A.] and as an intransitive subject [the abbreviatory letter exerted for it by Dixon S.].[8] Several such verbs, including SPEAKING verbs, have another role in a clause or sentence. That is the role which is activity connected with the objective case or the objective equivalent.[9] The syntactical subject, in which NP. or Noun Equivalent [cited hereafter as NE.] is used, has one or more roles at the syntactical level. The subject at the syntactical level works in the way that it usually comes before or leads to a main verb and represents the person or thing that performs the action of the verb.

A brief grammatical and semantical sketch of a verb is done here, and a question having many aspects of semantic roles and syntactic relations of verbs will be discussed in this paper for producing and promoting good English learning effects at the level of higher education.

First of all, this paper is intended to discuss how the verbs function in a clause in two languages: The way in which the verbs work in both the Japanese and English language.

Secondly, it is a study of how the verbs effect syntactically and semantically in a clause in both languages: How the syntactic roles of the verbs correspond and relate to the semantic features or distinctive qualities of verbs in both Japanese and English?

Thirdly, if possible, it is a a study of how a phonological, morphological, and etymological survey of the verbs employed in a clause and sentence might be given, discussed and studied in order to *make us conscious of a complex range of activities that fluent speakers engage in unconsciously.*[10]

The study of the semantic roles and syntactic relations is an intrinsically and essentially interesting subject. In the circumstance filled up with precious linguistic data and information—media language, conversation among members at home, classroom lectures, conversations on celular phone, soap dramas, variety shows, live stage performances, vaudeville, comic strips, animation or animation cartoons, ventriloquism, TV drama including family and comedy, news on TV and by radio, internet, internet mail, several documents, novels, letters, words in prayer, reading of the Bible, etc., we will see ourselves

to be the students of semantics and syntax, and will become semanticists and syntacticians in our own right.

According to R. M. W. Dixon's view of semantic roles and grammatical relations, "semantic roles may be associated with grammatical relations." I will look at some of his theoretical frame work for this study. The basic procedure necessary to the progress of the research which Dixon tried was that he worked, inductively, examining the semantic and syntactic properties of a large number of individual verbs, grdually inducing generalization from these verbs used in the clauses. He also began with a list of 2,000 most commonly used words in English and looked in detail at all those which can function as verbs（about 900 in all).[11] Each verb was taken seperately, and its semantic and syntactic characteristics were invesigated. The verbs were grouped into types―on the basis of semantic and syntactic profiles, of each type was then studied. In this way―proceeding from the particular to general―he worked out a pan‐language classification of complement clauses.[12] The measures for this study he took was mainly an inductive method, from which he tried to pick up a great number of verbs and classfied them into six basic groups.[13]

Turning back to one of the SPEAKING verbs such as *say*[14] ―*And God said, "Let there be light,"* in which we can find that there is a kind of relation in this sentence and we will catch our eyes on several words employed in the whole sentence. And we will think over what each word means in the sentence. The first thing that meets our eyes when we read the clause from the beginning will be the word *And* as the Conjunction, secondly *God* as the Subject, thirdly *said* as the SPEAKING verb and the "Direct Speech"［cited hereafter as DS.］in double quotation marks. Wondering about what each word linking together means, we see word by word in relation to the whole. In the case of the example above, the clause can be instantly conveted from DS. to the "Indirect Speech"［cited hereafter as IS.］：*And God told that He let that there must be light.* This sentence is what we call "IS.," which can be changed into "DS." according to the theory of conversion of "voice."

But I wonder if the form of IS. which is converted from DS. will be acceptable in English usage. In the form of IS. above, *that‐*clause beginning with *there*（which ends with *light*）is the subordinate clause, which is a constituent of or depends on its superordinate *that*-clause beginning with *he*, while this *that‐*clause becomes a constituent of or dependent on its superordinate clause beginning with *God* and ending with the verb *told*.[14] In other words, there are three clauses in the sentence. One of them is the main clause beginning with *God* and ending with *told*, and the others are subordinate clauses, the first *that*-clause beginning with *he* and ending with *let* and the second *that‐*clause beginning with *there* and ending with *light*. These three clauses explained above can be desplayed in Table 1:

Table 1 Main clause and subordinate clause:

Main clause		Subordinate clause	
			Subordinate clause
God	told	that he let	that there must be light
Subject	Predicate		

The problem which we have to consider next is what is the relation between the clause *he let* and the later clause *that there must be light*. Each clause is introduced by that and that is what we call *that*‑clause, and in grammatical description it is a sentence or sentence‑like construction included within antother sentence[15] such as *he let that there must be light* in *God told that he let that there must be light* and *there must be light* in *he let that there must be light*. Such a sentence‑like construction included within another sentence is what is called "EMBEDDING" in terms of generative grammer. In order to explain clearly the semantic roles of the verbs associated with the grammatical relations of these, we may make here a small excurses on the issue of the clause or sentence‑like construction as a whole. And we believe that it will be purposeful to go into that issue right now, because we may induce the historical and educative value of a working knowledge of English with which we contact. According to the *The Random House Dictionary of the English Language*,[16] the word clause was spelled like "*claus(e)*" at the period of Middle English（A.D.1100‑1500）and in the period of Medieval Latin（A.D.600‑1500）it was spelled "*clausa*" which might be a formation from Latin "*clausla*" meaning *a closing* or *conclusion*, the same as *clau(us)*. The word "*claus(us)*" might be past participle of "*claudere*" meaning *to close* and the suffix "‑*ula*" which is in English "‑*ule*" might to be added at the end of the word "*clausla*" with conjugation, becoming "*clausa.*" Taking a slight look at the historical stream of how the word "*clause*" became as it is now, we can see the Latin word "*clause*" meaning to close, from which it might be used as a rhetorical period in a section of a law, became "*clausa*" meaning as clause in English. Then this Medieval Latin "*clausa*" might be introduced to the cognate Provencal[17] "*clauza*" as it was in old French "*clause*," which might be taken to Middle English, becoming "*clause.*"

To turn from the digression, we will consider the type of embedded clauses and some similariries and differences in form and function. The lexical meaning of "embed" is *to fix something firmly and deeply in surface or solid object*.[18] An Embedded clause is often compared to a stone embedded in cement and it cannot be taken off from the cement, or the whole clause. An Embedded clause is what we call "superordinate."[19] One subordinate clause can be subordinated to another clause, as in *God told that He let that there must be light*. Both *that*‑clauses are subordinate, but one of them, that *He let* in *He let that there must be light* is superordinate to the *that*‑clause within it（*that there must be light.*）

In the sentence exampled above, there is a superordinate related to another clause in the whole sentence as a MATRIX SENTENCE, as show in Table 2:

Table 2 Superordinate clause related to another clause:

Level	MATRIX SENTENCE		
6	Main Clause	Subordinate Clause	
5	Superordinate Clause		
4	Main Clause	Subordinate Clause	
3		Superordinate Clause	
2		Main Clause	Subordinate Clause
1	God told	that He let	that there must be light.

In grammatical theory there must be a relationship between two clause as a relation of part to whole, in which a close connection and relation of superordinate clause to subordinate clause gives rise. A clause in another clause is superordinate, and in grammatical analysis it is a term for a clause that is enclosed by another clause,[21] but at the same time, *that*‑clause beginning with *there* in the sentence that *God told that He let that there must be light* is the subordinate clause which is a constituent dependent on its superordinate *that*‑clause beginning with *He*. While *that*‑clause beginning with *He let* and ending with *be light* is also a subordinate clause, which is, in turn, a constituent of its superordinate clause beginning with *God told* and ending with *be light*.[22]

The function of the subordinate clause in the example sentence is a nominal or noun clause like noun phrase and it can be a direct object of the sentence（*God told that He let that there must be light*）, where *He led* by *that* is the subject of a superordinate clause. In the *that*‑clause following *there must be light*, the word "*there*" is not the subject, but the word "*light*." The *that*‑clause beginning with <u>there</u> is EXISTENTIAL *there*‑clause can now occur with the verb phrase <u>must be</u> and the subject of this verb phrase might be the word *light*. Some grammarians say that EXISTENTIAL‑*there* biginning with *must* in *There must be light* is the grammatical subject of the sentence, but the view that EXISTENTIAL‑*there* is the grammatical subject needs to be grammatically reviewed by the following information. Basically, the word *there* cannot be used as subject in any case, and from an grammatical point of view we recognize that the word *there* is being analyzed into one of OPEN CLASSES, *adverb*, in terms of categories of WORD CLASSES, which are traditionally being called *parts of speech*. According to *LDCE*, the phrase is a lexical item as it occurs in a dictionary and it is categorized into word classes such as CLOSE CLASSES, OPEN CLASSES, NUMERALS and INTERJECTIONS. The word *there* is classfied into pronoun, adverb and interjection, not noun, says *LDCE*. On the other hand *Sanseido's College Crown English‑Japanese Dictionary* [cited hereafter as *SCCEJD.*][24] gives it the functions of adverb, noun and interjection, and *RHDEL.* provides it with the functions of adverb, noun, adjective and interjection, and *the Concise Oxford Dictionary* [*COD.*][25] offers the word *there* the three classes such as adverb, noun and interjection. There are good grounds for the view that these three reference books, giving linguistic information about words, present the same classes for this word. They are adverb, noun（including pronoun）and interjection, but there seems to be a slight difference on the treatment of the categories of the word *there* among four reference books about words. *SCCEJD.* gives the word there the same functions as the other three reference books about words, excepting the class of noun. Only *LDCE.* among four reference books about words supply the word *there* the function of pronoun, but no others do.

Borrowing an approach to Existential *there* from *CGEL.*, researched and presented by RQ., SG., GL. and JS.,[26] we would like to present that the existential form beginning with *there* is correspondent to the basic form having an indefinite subject and a form of the verb *be* in its verb phrase:

Subject ＋（auxiliaries）＋ be ＋ predication
→ there ＋（auxiliaries）＋ be ＋ subject ＋ predication[27]

In the formula presented above the existential clause beginning with *there* is converted from the preceeding formula as the basic clause. Several examples in which the principle works（converting from basic clause to existential clause）will be given below:

1. (a) Something must be wrong.（Type SVC）
   (b) There must be something wrong.
2. (a) Was anyone in the vicinity?（Type SVA）
   (b) Was there anyone in the vicinity?
3. (a) No one was waiting.（Type SV）
   (b) There was no one waiting.
4. (a) Plenty of people are getting promotion.（Type SVO）
   (b) There are plenty of people getting promotion.
5. (a) Two bulldozers have been knocking the place flat.（Type SVOC）
   (b) There are have been two bulldozers knocking the place flat.
6. (a) A girl is putting the kettle on.（Type SVOA）
   (b) There's a girl putting the kettle on.
7. (a) Something is causing my friend distress.（Type SVOO）
   (b) There's something causing my friend distress.[27]

The word *there* as a part of speech, according to *COD.*, functions as an adverb, a noun and interjection in its "dictionary categorization", and it is called LEXICAL ITEM, which is a word as it ocurrs in a dictionary.[28] The basic function of the word there is a part of speech or word class which modifies verbs, adjectives and other adverbs.[29] In the above example（from 1 (b) to 7 (b)）the word *there* is used as a word class, which some grammarians claim that it functions as pronoun derived from noun, e.g, *there is／there must be* in *Is there life after death? There is no special way of doing it—you just have to mix the dough slowly.| There are some explanation for such outlandish behaviour.*[30]

The sentences as examples quoted from *LDCE.* are what they call "existential sentences with *there ＋（auxiliaries）＋ be ＋ subject ＋ predication*"[31] and this formula is drawn from the original clause "*subject ＋（auxiliaries）＋ be ＋ predication.*" We may now proceed to discussing the problem of the subject in the existential sentence with *there*. The main reason for this problem is that we must look more carefully into this problem in the case of "*the subject* in the existential sentence." I cannot easily accept that a dictionary classfied existential *there* with the examples into pronoun, even though *there* itself functions essentialy as adverb class when it is used to imply "the locative meaning." The word *there* itself is primarily the meaning of *location* and function of *adverb*, e.g. *Is there anything in*

the box? God said, Let there be light: and there was light.（Gen.1:3）*There is a page missing. There was once a king. There are women and women. There's somebody*（who）*wants to see. There is no telling when he will arrive.*[32] These examples are the existential sentences, which are converted from the original sentences, whose subject may be called "notional subject," and at the same time it is called "grammatical subject."[33] In this paper the semantic feature of the existential *there* treated as locative meaning is set forth as a premise, that is "in/at/to that place." From this semantical feature *there*, in *There must be something wrong*, might be interpreted as *in something*. In the case of *there* in *Was there anyone in the vicinity?* the existential *there* might be *in the vicinity*, because *there* as lexical meaning is *in that place* and it corresponds with the contextual meaning *in the vicinity*. In this regard of the semantical features of the word *there* and the phrase *in the vicinity*, we can find something in common between them. It is not to be denied that there is the same point in both words, and the same key word in both of them is *adverb* or *adverbial word*. The word *there* as an adverb signifies *the local adverb* which the phrase *in the vicinity* also shows. In the example sentence 3, *there* of *There was no one waiting* also implicates *in/at that place* and the whole sentence might be like this: *There was no one waiting in/at that place*. We see the clause in a slightly different meaning between the original size of the original clause and the clause enlarged. There ought to be correspondence between existential *there* as an adverb and adverbial *in* or *at that place*. In 4（b）as an example, *there* in *There are plenty of people getting promotion* is an existential sentence with *there* and the meaning of the word *there* seems more abstract than the word *there* in the former example sentence *There was no one waiting*. In the case of *no one waiting* as nominative, modofied by the word *waiting* as gerund, it is closely associated with a good and convenient location for gathering together or being a community, because the word *waiting* implies "location" meaning "in that place" and the concept of the word *waiting* can be concisely defined as "stopping or staying *in a place* without doing anything until someone arrives or something happens"[34] In order to get the clear meaning of the word *there* in *there are plenty of people getting promotin*, we must semantically apply the principle of conjecture upon the clause *there are plenty of people* which relates to the phrase *getting promotion*. The existential *there* as an adverb is used as *the dummy subject*, not the real subject, implying the meaning of *somewhere* or *in that place*. The phrase *getting promotion* modifying the noun phrase *plenty of people* is closely associated with *people's work environment* or *people's office/workplace* and the lexical meaning of the phrase *getting promotion* as verbal or nominal is "getting preferment" and in Japanese is 昇進スルコト or shoushin‐surukoto. The expressions of *getting promotion* and *getting preferment* are equivalent in meaning. Then what if a question about where they get their preferment arose? To this question a possible answer might be: *They/people get their preferment in their workplace*. If we add a large class of phrasal quantifier consisiting of an indefinite article often preceding and a noun of quantify followed by of to the word as noun, we can get a phrasal noun occuring equally with noncount and plural nouns,[35] e.g. *I've read a few*

of her books（*LDCE.,* s.v.“few”），*The party was a bit of a disappointment in the end*（*Ibid.,* s.v.“bit.”），*With a bit of luck we should get it finished tomorrow*（*Ibid.*）. It is essential to see that a principle of the open‐class phrasal quantifier whose function is semantically similar to the closed-class quantifiers and whose constituent is mainly a noun of quantify followed by of and often proceded by an indefinite article.[36] *Plenty of people* in *Plenty of people are getting promotion* is the subject, which consists of *modifier* and *of*, occured with count noun and *plenty of* is informally used and preferd for adjective. The phrase *a plenty of* as a location is labeled *a regional language* in the English *tongue* and it is used as an informal style or expression in American English.[37] The question of the phrasal（a）*plenty of* is a grammatical issue which corresponds with postdeterminer and predeterminer and we can briefly touch the point of issue in the notes of this paper.[38]

Let us go on to the example sentences 5（a）and 5（b）and discuss the point of how the syntactical issue relates to the semantical feature. The example sentences *Two bulldozers have been knocking the place flat* and its existencial sentence *There have been two bulldozers knocking the place flat* have the verb tense THE PRESENT PERFECT PROGRESSIVE which forms: have/has + been + -ing.

Tense in English is the grammatical category of verb in which the time of the actions is specified and English had grammatically several tenses,[39] a present tense is *A bulldozer knocks* and a past tense is *A bulldozer knocked*. By using the auxiliaries *have* and *be* plus -ing form of verb the sentence is being extended and enlarged. By the theory of enlargement of hte verb we can create English verb so‐called “perfect tense”: *A bulldozer has knocked*, and “past perfect tense”: *A bulldozer had knocked*. In fact, the following example sentences employ progressive present and past perfect tense forms, emphasizing the duration of an activity which relates to the activity beginning in the past and continuing up to the present or to another time in the past: *I've been reading for two hours; I'd been reading for two hours when he arrived*.[40] In other words, the present/past perfect progress ［cited hereafter as *PPP./Past PP.*］indicates to us the expression of the duration or lastingness（the length of time in which something goes/went on） of an activity that is/was in progress, ie., how long something/someone has/had continued to the present/the another time.[41] As for this brief view, see the explanation at the notes.[42] The sentence *Two bulldozers have been knocking the place flat* can be changed into the existential sentence beginning with *there*: *There are two bulldozers* which *have been knocking the place flat*, and the semmantical point of issue may be arranged from another angle. Imaging a place where two bulldozers[43] have been knocking, we may reach a picture or idea in our mind about what a place could be like. *The place* in *There have been two bulldozers knocking the place flat* should be differenciated from the existential *there* suggesting what place should be like. In the example sentence the phrase *the place* tied to *flat* is employed in the relation of the word *knocking*, and it is said in plain terms that the phrase *the place* and the -ing form *knocking* are linking together and the -ing form *knocking* is jointing with the subject *bulldozer* preceded by a cardinal number as ajective and making the phrase as the

subjective word. The existential *there* might be the meaning of *on the ground* or *on the land* as an adverbial. It follows from what has been said thus far that two bulldozers with purpose in the sentence are the powerful vehicles that are put on the ground and driven in order to make the place flat. This location must be wider than *the place* where two bulldozers set in order to make the ground flat. *The place* is a target land for two bulldozers and it should be leveled by the bulldozers in the present case. But the locational word by *there* as an adverb should be differeciated from the subject phrase *that place* knocking and leveling by two bulldozers. The hole sentence might be extended by adding the modifier *to make flat* and the adverbial *on the ground*: *There have been two bulldozers knocking the place in order to make it flat on the ground*. Convering into the original sentence: *Two bulldozers have been knocking the place flat*, which implies a dynamic activity, while the existential sentence beginning with *there* suggests static activity.

We may now proceed to the discussion of the problems between *A girl is putting the kettle on* and *There's a girl putting the kettle on*. The former sentence in the examples is the form of the PRESENT PROGRESSIVE, which indicates an action in progress at the time of doing right now. The action or event began in the past, is in progress now, and will probably continue into the future and forming: is + -ing.[44] The latter is an existential sentence beginning with *there* and in the notional subjective clause the phrase *a girl* are the central words as subject modified by the gerund phrase *putting...on* are closely linked together. This is what we call a contact clause, and each item from *a girl* to *on* is linking together and makes a chain as nominative case with doing a certain action *putting kettle on*, and we can understand that is at least what she is doing right now. Reading the sentences, we may have a question: Where is she putting the kettle on? From this point we begin to give play to our imagination where she is putting the kettle on. There is a slight ambiguity in the sentence *A girl is putting the kettle on*, but the ambiguity in the sentence can be avoided by adding the word implying "place" to this sentence. By adding the phrase *fire of the cooking stove* to the sentence becomes *A girl is putting the kettle on fire of the cooking stove* and the existential sentence: *There's a girl putting the kettle on fire of the cooking stove*. She as the subject in 6(a) example sentence suggests "dynamic activity" and *she* in the existential sentence with *there* of 6(b) implies "static activity" and the existential *there* means "at a kitchen equipment" in which "on a cooking stove."

In the last sentences 7(a) is a type of *SVOO* and the meaning of the notional subject is semantically ambiguous having more than one meaning. The word *something* itself has several possible meanings or interpretations.[45] The synonym of the word *ambiguous* is *uncertain* and the word *causing* is a causative word by which there arises a causal relation between the subject and the central complement *my friend*. Between *my friend* and *distress* is not a special relation, but *my friend* is used as object and the word *distress* is used as the same according to the type of SVOO.

Turning back to the very beginning sentence: *And God said, Let there be light; and there was light*, in which the word *said*, used as SPEAKING VERB, which can be changed into

the word "*command*" and the sentence becomes like this: *Then God commanded, "Let there be light"―and light appeared.* There is also an existential clause *Let there be light* which can be devided into two clauses―one is "*Let*" and other is "*there be light.*" The basic and lexical meaning of the word *let* in a word is *allow* and its brief and expository meaning is *to allow someone to do something*. The problem in this clause is "*Whoever did let?*" and "*Whoever did let to whom?*" The statement is *God said* and then comes the direct speech "*Let there be light.*" In the direct speech the meaning of the word *Let* might be *I let* and *I* in *I let* means *God*. Answering to the first question is *God himself let there....* The meaning of the clause *there be light* is *there must/should/ought be light in this universe*. So the meaning of *there* in *there be light* means *in the universe/in the heaven and the earth/in this world*. The second answer to the second question may be *God let the thing to be light* and the meaning of *God said, "Let there be light"* ...light or *God tolt that HE let there be light* may be *God told himself or the thing to be light that He let the thing to be light there must be light in this universe which God created*.

Next we must present where the SPEAKING verbs are being employed in the basic data:

8. (a) Issac <u>called</u> Jacob, blessed him and charged, and <u>said</u> him, "You shall not take a wife from the daughters of Cannan." (Gen.28:1)

  (b) イサクはヤコブを<u>呼び寄せ</u>、彼を祝福し、そして彼に命じて<u>言った</u>。「カナンの娘たちの中から妻をめとってはならない......」(創28:1)

9. (a) And behold, the Lord stood above it and <u>said</u>, "I am the Lord, the God of your father Abraham and the God of Isaac ;.... (Gen.28:13)

  (b) そして、見よ。主が彼のかたわらに立っておられた。そして<u>仰せられた</u>。「わたしはあなたの父アブラハムの神、イサクの神、主である。(創28:13)

10. (a) Then Jacob awoke from his sleep and <u>said</u>, "Surely the Lord is in this place, and I didn't know it." (Gen.28:16)

  (b) ヤコブは眠りからさめて、「まことに主がこの所におられるのに、私はそれをしらなかった。」と<u>言った</u>。(創28:16)

11. (a) He <u>called</u> the name of that place Bethel;.... (Gen.28:19)

  (b) そして、その町の名をベテルと<u>呼んだ</u>。(創28:19)[46]

Notes/註

1) *New American Standard Bible*, 1st ed., (Carol Stream: Creation House. Inc. 1971), 1 Cor.14:10〔cited hereafter as NASB.〕/世界にはおそらく非常に多くの種類のことばがあるでしょうが、意味のないこたばなど一つもありません(*New Japanese Bible*/新改訳、第3版、東京:日本聖書刊行会、1コリント14章10節).〔以下 *NJB* と略称する〕

2) In "preface" of Good News Bible, *Today's English Version*, the editor refers to the translation: "Since this translation is intended for all who use English as a means of communication, the translators have tried to avoid words and forms not in current or widespread use;..." What is remarked about the translation theory may be applied to the communication and linguistic theory in both Japanese and

English languages.〔cited hereafter as *TEV.*〕

3） *A New American Standard Bible*, Gen.1:3.〔cited hereafter as *ANASB.*〕

4） R.M.W.Dixon, *A New Approach to English Grammar on Semantic Principles*, New York: Oxford University Press, 1991），p.140.〔cited hereafter as *ANAEG.*〕

5） The word "competency" is added to the term "language activity" by the writer of this present paper and there is a possibility that the phrase might be accepted as one of terms of linguistics.

6） R.M.W.Dixon, *Ibid.*, pp.146‐147, pp.366‐367.

7） *Ibid.*, p.140.

8） *Ibid.*, p.11, Dixon employs another abbreviatory letters for the following syntactical terms: S‐intransitive subject, A‐transitive subject, O‐transitive object.

9） *Ibid.*, p.11, Dixon says: If a verb has two or more roles, one will be mapped onto A and another onto O. It is the role which is most relevant for the success of the activity which is put in A relation; compare *Bill tried to borrow the Saab from Jane* with *Jane tried to lend the Saab to Bill.* And it is the non‐A role which is regarded as most salient for the activity（often the role which is most affected by the activity）which is put into O relation‐compare *Mary cut the cake into slices* with *Mary cut slices off the cake.*

10） Lynn M. Berk., *English Syntax*（New York: Oxford University Press,1999），p.7, what he addressed could be on the basic of the following remarks by him: If you are a native speaker of English you learned these forms and constructions without even being aware that you were doing it. If you are a native or fluent non－native speaker, you undoubtedly construct English sentences automatically, with little premediation.〔cited hereafter as *ES.*〕

11） *ANAGE.*, pp.9‐12.

12） *Ibid.*, pp.11‐12.

13） *Ibid.*, pp.364‐369, "Appendix, List of adjective and verb types,with sample members," the verbs grouped into basic types are primary‐A verb types, primary‐B verb types, secondary‐B verb types, Secondary‐C verb types and secondary‐D verb types（Role: Arbiter）

14） Tom Mcarthur, *The Oxford Companion to the English Languages*（New York: Oxford University Press, 1992），suv voce〔cited hereafter as s.v.〕, "Subordination," p.998.〔cited hereafter as *OCEL.*〕

15） *Ibid.*, s.v. "Clause, clauses and functuin." pp.220‐221.

16） Laurence Urdang, ed., et al., *The Random House Dictionary of the English Language*, college ed.（New York: Random House, 1968），s.v. "Clause."〔cited hereafter as *RHDEL.*〕

17） It signifies a Romance language formely and widely used spoken and written in southern France from the Alps to the Atlantic and still in use some rural areas.（*RHDEL.*,s.v. "Provencal."）

18） Lord Quirk, et al., *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, 3rd ed. with New Words Supplement and CD‐RM（Edinburg: Longman/桐原書店、2001）、s.v. "Embed."〔cited hereafter as *LDCE.*〕

19） *OCEL.*, s.v. "Clause," pp.220‐221, saying that "some grammarians refer to subordinate sentence or clause as being embedded within its matrix sentence. Is it possible that 'God told that there must be light' can be a MATRIX SENTENCE? The phrase that He let might be embedded into its MATRIX SENTENCE God told …that there must be light."

20） *Ibid.*,s.v. "Subordination," p.998.

21） *Ibid.*,s.v. "Superordinate Clause," p.1005.

22） *Ibid.*,s.v. "Subordination," p.998.

23） *Ibid.*,s.v. "Subject," pp.996‐997.

24） Ohtsuka Takanobu, *Sanseido's College Crown English‐Japanese Dictionary*（Tokyo: Sanseodo, 1991），s.v. "There."〔cited hereafter as *SCCEJD.*〕

25） E. Mcinton, ed., *The Concise Oxford Dictionary*, 5th ed.（Tokyo: Oxford University Press, 1964），s.v. "There."〔cited hereafter as *COD.*〕

26） These abbreviate letters stand for Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech and Jan Svartvik who are the authors of CGEL.

27） *Ibid.*, the fourteen sentences as examples just quoted from the page1404.

28） *Ibid.*, p.68.

29） *OCEL.*, s.v. "Adverb," p.15.

30） *LDCE.*, s.v. "There[1]."

31) *CGEL.*, s.v. "Existential there," p.1403.
32) Tokuichi Matsuda, ed., et al., *Kenkyusha's English‐Japanese Dictionary for the General Reader* (Tokyo: Kenkyusha, 1989), s.v. "There." [cited hereafter as *KEJDGR.*]
33) *CGEL.*, p.1405.
34) *LLCE.*, p.605.
35) *CGEL.*, p.264, showing example sentences:

```
                       ┌ plenty of ┐
The room contained ────┤ a lot of  ├──┬ students.
                       └ lots of  ─┘  └ furniture.
```

It points out that these quantifiers (especially lots) are informally used to the other quantifiers following below it remarks that others are restricted to quantifying only noncount nouns[1], or plural count nouns[2]:

```
                         ┌ great ──┬ deal ─────┐
The chest contained a ───┤ good  ──┘           ├── of money.
                         ├ (large)─┬ quantity ─┤
                         └ (small)─┴ amount  ───┘

                       ┌ (great) ┐
The hall contained a ──┤ (large) ├── number of students.
                       └ (good)  ┘
```

As for the usage in Standard English, it suggests that "it is useful for these open‐class quantifiers to be modified by a quantifying adjective, the latter being obligatory in Standard English with deal. Although the quantity nouns lot, deal, etc. look like the head of a noun phrase, there are grounds for arguing that the whole expression (a lot of, a good deal of, etc.) functions as a determiner. Notably, the verb regularly has number concord with the second noun, rather than the first, as in:

┌ *Lots of food* was on the table.
└ = There was *lots of food* on the table.

36) *Ibid.*
37) Konishi Tomoshichi, *Taishukan's Genius English‐Japanese Dictionary* (Tokyo: Taishukan, 1998), s.v. "Plenty." [cited hereafter as *TGEJD.*]
38) *CGEL.*, p.261, saying, "Postdeterminers follow predeterminers or central determiners (if such determiners are present). But they precede any adjective and other premodifying items. Postdeterminers include:
 (a) Cardinal numerals: my three children
 (b) Ordinal numerals and 'general ordinals' : the first day, the last month.
 (c) Closed‐class quantifiers: few people.
 (d) Open‐class quantifiers: a large number of people.
The quantifier which is a technical word or phrase that is used "with noun to show quantity and in the examples (c) and (d) people is a noun, few and a large number show quantity and of is to introduce possesive case (e.g. of people).
39) *OCEL.*, s.v. "TENSE[1]," pp.1030‐1032, saying, "In terms of morphology, English has only two tense, the present or non‐present (take/takes) and the past (took)…" In this remark English tenses are only two from which other tenses might be derived: the progressive and perfect tenses. Basically English verb have not only two tenses, but also three tenses, adding the future tense (will take).
40) *Ibid.*
41) Betty Schrampfer Azar, *Foundamentals of English Grammer* (New Jersey: Prentice Hall Regents, 1992) pp.176‐177. [cited hereafter as *FEG.*]
42) *Ibid.*, It refers to PPP. that "PPP. expresses how long activity has been in progress."

43）*RHDEL.*, s.v.“Bulldozer,”“a powerfull caterpillar tractor having a vertival blade at the front end for moving earth, tree stumps, rock, etc.

44）*FEG.*, p.3.

45）*RHDEL.*

46）*ANASB.*, Gen.28.