

A Study of Structuralism from the Japanese Viewpoint of Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language

by Tomoko Honjo

Preface

Mr. Takanobu Otsuka, one of the leading English scholars in Japan, wrote the following in his article "New Trend of Language Study":

It may be said that in linguistics, a rather old discipline comparable to theoretical physics, a gap of ten years or twenty years may not make any difference to the study. We first began to pay attention to Saussure's and Marty's works when the China-Japan incident, and later, World war II broke out. I felt dazzled when I came out of ten years isolation from the academic field of foreign countries, somewhat perhaps as Rip Van Winkle might have felt. At present, for instance, in the linguistic field scholars use new terminology such as *glossematics*, *constitute*, *constituent*, *focus class*, *nucleus*, *satellite*; and words such as *class*, *derivate*, *paradigm* are used differently. It seems that now *Lexique de la Terminologie Linguistique* by Moronzeau and *Kenkyusha Dictionary of English Philology* are out of date; we cannot keep up with world-level of linguistics with these books.¹

Probably all Japanese students of English linguistics felt like Otsuka when they could get again American academic periodicals, books, and other information, after such a long interval, and when they could settle themselves in their study rooms at the universities again.

Indeed linguistic study has developed these last thirty years, especially in the United States. Scientific method has been emphasized and this scientific spirit has dominated linguistics to such an extent that linguistic science seems almost mathematical. Its advance in methodology and analytical procedure is remarkable. In other words, in analytical techniques and in attitudes towards

¹*The Rising Generation*, Vol. 93 (1952), p. 302. Translation is the present writer's.

language, American linguistics has diverged from European, and has followed its own paths.

On the other hand, the traditional grammar has been blamed because of its unscientific description, for instance, of the 'parts of speech'; yet it has been used even in the United States where are found the foremost linguists of the world. If the traditional grammar is completely wrong in its description and analysis of the English language, probably it would not have been used so long, and the new grammar based on new theory might have taken the former's position in language instruction. Does Laird's statement, "There was enough in classical Latin grammar which made sense in English so that we could cling to it, and we clung,"² explain the reason traditional grammar is still widely used?

At the same time, there is much criticism of the new linguistics and structuralism which offer an alternative method of analyzing contemporary speech. At present there is a wide gulf between the innovators and the traditionalists.

In Japan, English education has a history of almost ninety years in the school system and longer in private education. However, we cannot say that English education is perfect in Japan. It has weaknesses and many problems. It has been criticized in various ways; for instance, few can speak English fluently or understandably in spite of the many years spent in learning English at school. In Japan, also, many scholars study to keep up with the level of linguistic scholarship, and discuss structuralism from various points of view. The visit of Charles C. Fries to Japan caused Japanese teachers of English to discuss oral approach and linguistic approach with regard to English instruction.

In this paper I shall examine the learning and teaching of English as a foreign language from the Japanese viewpoint. I shall begin with the situation of English education in Japan, go on to the examination of what structuralism offers, and consider how structuralism might be adopted in teaching English as a foreign

²Charlton Grant Laird, *The Miracle of Language* (Cleveland: World Pub. Co., 1953), p. 163.

language. And, at the same time, I shall reevaluate the traditional grammar from the viewpoint of language instruction. However, because of personal and time limitations, in this paper I shall not be able to cover everything which must be considered in teaching and learning the English language. I shall exclude “phonetics” and “phonemics”, and rather emphasize “syntax”; “morphology” will be considered when it is relevant. And I shall examine in detail the English “article”, the use of which are peculiarly difficult for Japanese students to master partly because the Japanese language does not have “articles.” After a discussion of some minor problems illustrated by some comparison between Japanese and English, I shall conclude with suggestions for Japanese English education.

Chapter I Introduction: English Education in Japan and “Oral Approach”

At present, 7,690,000 Japanese children from twelve to eighteen years old are studying English five hours a week. In universities students are busy with their seventh, eighth, ninth or tenth year of English. In large cities many ‘salary-men’—clerks, secretaries, bankers and government employees—and office girls and sales girls go several evenings a week to commercial schools to learn English conversation and business correspondence. At bookstores, on street cars, buses, electric trains and subways, thousand of people are poring over magazines with English articles, movie scenarios and jokes; over grammar books whose chapter headings, such as “Elliptical Negation” and “Concessive Clause”, suggest their contents; over cram books, word lists and sample examinations. For high schools follow the lead of universities in making English grammar and translation a part of the rigorous ordeal called “examination hell,” a stiffly competitive process of admission. And a constantly increasing number of business firms are requiring

job applicants to take English tests.¹

Thus, English is an important language in present-day Japan; especially after World War II everybody recognized English as the universal language. Moreover, the *Suggested Course of Study in English for Lower and Upper Secondary Schools*, published by the Japanese Ministry of Education in 1951 for the guidance of teachers and principals in the new secondary school system, took this position:

It is obvious that students do not or should not study English simply to know English. The aim must be much more fundamental than that. English... can contribute greatly to the development of social competence, by leading to an understanding of the worthwhile elements of the home life and social lives of English-speaking peoples, and to an understanding of the democratic heritage of the world, which to an important extent was developed in English speaking nations.²

English was established firmly as a second language in the period between 1870 and 1890 in Japan. And by far the most popular foreign language sought after by the Japanese was English—because (1) America was the first to open commercial relations; (2) the power of England was most felt in the Orient; and (3) Anglo-Saxon countries sent out most missionaries and travellers to the East.³ In fact, ever since 1870 there has scarcely been a school which has not taught English. And in early Christian schools English was the medium of instruction. Even in the early Tokyo Imperial University days all lectures were given in English. There were no trained native teachers and technical terms had not been translated into Japanese.

The Emperor Meiji's Rescript on Education in 1890 began a period of nationalism, in which the aspect of Education was

¹William Cullen Brayant, II. "English Language Teaching In Japanese Schools," *PMLA*, Vol. 71, (Sept., 1956), p. 21.

²Quoted by Brayant, *op. cit.*, p. 22.

³Inazo Nitobe, "The Teaching and Use of Foreign Language in Japan," *Sewanee Review*, Vol. 31, (July-Sept., 1923), p. 334.

changed. By the end of the Russo-Japanese War in 1905 Japan had only 41 schools with foreign teachers, most of these run by missionaries. Studying from Japanese textbooks and having infrequent contact with native speakers of English, Japanese people had reached the stage of learning about English in Japanese. The study of foreign language was pursued as a means to other studies. "Japanese teachers came to make no secret of their incompetence in oral intercourse; it was not expected of them. In fact there was a deplorable propensity to boast of colloquial ignorance. A foreign language was thus made an exercise of the eyes and not the ears. Its conquests were intellectual and no social. Its best helps were books, and worst trials conversation. We treat modern European languages with as much respect and intellectual profit as Europeans treat classical languages. The serious difference in our case, however, is that the languages we study are not yet dead."⁴

The Washington Naval Conference of 1921 highlighted Japan's need for skill in spoken English for increased foreign business relations following World War I. Then Harold Palmer was invited as an advisory professor of Foreign Language of the Ministry of Education in 1922. Palmer urged that the mastery of "written language" would be gained through the 'oral approach'. Despite his definition of "speech" as the act of communicating, orally and in writing, as contrasted with "code," or the conventional symbols mutually agreed upon for the purpose of communication, Palmer's distinction failed to convince older Japanese scholars to whom 'language' meant only the visual symbols of Chinese characters. Palmer's fourteen years in Japan were not productive of great practical improvement in the teaching of English.

And then Japan got into World War II; during that time the school hours of English lessons were decreased, and students obviously could not study so much as they did in peace time.

⁴ Nitobe, *op. cit.*, pp. 338-9.

The necessity of knowing English became even more apparent after the war. A steadily increasing need for the foreign language was inevitable. In 1946 the United States Educational Mission came to Japan and changed the educational system and gave suggestions to the Japanese Ministry of Education about curricula. As the result of these suggesting the *Suggested Course of Study in English for Lower and Upper Secondary Schools* indicated that the over-all aim of secondary school English teaching was :

To develop a practical knowledge of English as "speech" with primary emphasis on aural-oral skills and the learning of structural patterns through learning experiences conducive to mastery in hearing, oral expression, reading, and writing, and to develop as an integral part of the same an understanding of, appreciation for, and a desirable attitude toward the English-speaking peoples, especially as regards their modes of life, manners and customs.⁵

And the author urges the teacher to "concentrate on teaching English speech and not on teaching the formal grammar; to avoid literal translation as 'unscientific', for in order to read effectively students must think in English, and translation discourages this."⁶

We recognize the fact that few educated Japanese can speak English even though they can read English quite well, and know difficult vocabularies. English teaching has been criticized and educators have reconsidered the method of teaching. The work of Western linguistic scholars and teachers has been drawn upon widely. Especially the work of Charles C. Fries, one of the leading structuralists, has received much attention since his visit to Japan.

Fries stated, "You may say that you have learned a foreign language, when, within a limited vocabulary, you have first mastered the sound system (when you can understand the stream of speech and achieve an understandable production of it) and

⁵ Quoted by Brayant, *op. cit.*, p. 28.

⁶ *Ibid.*

second, you have made structural devices (the basic arrangements of utterances) matters of automatic habit.”⁷ And Fries emphasizes the importance of oral practice. He proposes “the oral approach”—the basic drill, the repetitions of the patterns produced by a native speaker of the foreign languages, as the most economical way of thoroughly learning.

Fries distinguishes the oral method from the direct method. In both the direct method and oral approach the emphasis is upon the actual use of the foreign language, and translation is eliminated. Of the ‘oral approach,’ Fries says :

Although the language of the pupil is avoided as much as possible, it is used when necessary to make sure that explanations are thoroughly understood. Generalizations concerning structure, or grammar, are a regular feature of the “oral approach” although they are always intimately related to the oral practices of the language.⁸

Leonard Bloomfield, the representative scholar of descriptive linguistics whose book, *Language*, has largely shaped the idea of structuralism, also says, “One can learn to understand and to speak a language only by learning and imitating speakers of that language. These speakers are called informants.”⁹ According to Bloomfield, then, the best informant is one who can be made to talk freely and naturally over a wide range of vocabulary and at the same time can slow up his speech sufficiently for dictation. The worst informant is one who delivers theoretical discussions in the learners’ mother tongue.¹⁰ Bloomfield describes the technique of working with an informant in *Outline Guide for the Practical Study of Foreign Languages*. First of all, the learners must never stop imitating foreign sounds, must mimic the informant. And

⁷ Charles C. Fries, *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language*. (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1945), p. 3.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 7.

⁹ Leonard Bloomfield, *Outline Guide for the Practical Study of Foreign Languages* (Baltimore, Md.: Linguistic Society of America, 1942), p. 2.

¹⁰ Bloomfield, *op. cit.*, p. 4.

the learners always made the informant repeat what he says until the learners have written it down. The learners learn concrete names of objects first and then expand their vocabulary and go on to analysis and listing. By careful and thorough work the learners can discover the machinery, so to speak, of the language; then they write it in its simplest terms.

Truly the recent Japanese English educational circle has come to re-recognize and reestimate H. E. Palmer's oral method through the presentation of Fries' oral approach and linguistic approach. However, though in America the Intensive Language Program's work¹¹ had already shown that it was best to start out learning a language by working at it orally and intensively, in Japan the ideal is far from the reality; even the eclectic oral method is far from the application. We have moreover problem because of mass education. It is impossible in compulsory education (junior high) to increase the hours of the English lesson (now generally from 4 to 6 hours a week), to limit to only ten students in a class, or to arrange classes according to the students ability, in order to carry out teaching English with the oral method efficiently.

It is also impossible to have a native informant in each English class. And if we adopt the linguistic approach, teachers are supposed to be not only teachers of grammar for analytical explanation of the language system, but also to take the part of native informants. It is quite difficult to find enough teachers who can give oral drill in English not harsh to the ears. "Despite

¹¹The directives that were issued for the AST program provided for the following principles to be observed: 1. A large number of instructional hours ("contact hours") in a relatively short period of time. 2. Small number of students per class. 3. Combination of presentation of language structure and conversational practice. 4. Emphasis on drill and on the formation of linguistic habits. 5. Phonemic analysis and transcription. 6. Employment of native informants. 7. Specific objective: command of the colloquial spoken form of the language. (This did not exclude reading; in fact reading ability come as a normal by-product) Robert A. Hall, Jr. *Leave Your Language Alone!* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Linguistica, 1950), p. 208.

their preoccupation with visual imagery in learning their own language from books, Japanese children have unusual talent for mimicry.”¹² This has both advantage and hazard, for they can as quickly be drilled into incorrect pronunciation by teachers whose own speech is unsure.

In principle, the Ministry of Education recommends holding classes to a maximum of 50 students; in actuality the average is between 55 to 60, and in some cases class numbers run to 70. According to Brayant's report, for instance, of the 1,123 students at the 15th Lower Secondary School of Adachi-ku, Tokyo, 1,060 study English; and 4 of its 32 teachers handle all English classes, teaching respectively 25, 26, 26 and 20 hours per week. (In principle, an English teacher has 22 class hours a week). Thus, each teacher comes in daily class to contact with about 265 different children. Under these circumstances individual recitation must be severely limited. Teachers depend on group drill, standardized written assignments and mechanical memorization. In theory, at least five or six weeks at the beginning of the first year are spent on “orientation to oral English.” Thereafter the students follow a textbook in weekly lessons. Writing is started immediately. Each class period includes oral and written translation prepared with the aid of pocket dictionaries. The practice of rearranging English sentences by numbering their grammatical elements to fit Japanese structural patterns, following the traditional approach to Chinese classics, is still used:

This is a book. An average vocabulary of 20 or 25 words per
1 3 2
week is assigned—sometimes as many as 35 in one lesson.

A serious obstacle to effective oral teaching throughout the three years of junior high also lies in the senior high school entrance examinations which more and more students are taking

¹² Brayant, *op. cit.*, p. 36.

in their third year. And this obstacle is greater in the senior high schools. Students feel a strong inducement to prepare only for the examinations, and the teacher measures his own success in terms of his pupils' achievement therein. The extreme effects of this pressure are observable in third year senior high classes. And, furthermore, as Brayant said, "The subject matter they (senior high teachers) must teach is so heavily literary and grammatical that a native English speaker would be hard put to give it vitality."¹³ Then many teachers at both junior and senior high levels try to meet criticism from above (senior high and universities) by drilling their students in grammar, vocabulary, and translation for entrance to the next higher unit.

University entrance examinations are rigid in content, in order to eliminate all but a small minority of candidates. The material for English entrance examinations has usually been drawn from classical English stylistics. A great part of questions require rediction from English into Japanese or from Japanese into English. Students are also required to explain grammatical constructions and to answer difficult completion-type questions. This new version of the traditional "examination hell" forces teachers to favor the dictionary and grammar book over the reader and the free conversation lesson.

Language teaching reformers and secondary school teachers complain that the continual emphasis on translation and grammar makes university entrance examinations too hard. University examiners reply frankly that they must make the examinations stiff in order to screen a small number of successful candidates from a much larger number of applicants for whom there is no room in the universities.

Again in universities English departments do not provide a service to the university as a whole and to the community commensurate with the need for practical English training. Among

¹³ Brayant, *op. cit.*, p. 39.

Japanese university professors, it is generally thought that in gaining proficiency in a foreign language the student must have sacrificed more important areas of knowledge. In consequence, among teachers of secondary level, by and large, older teachers are settled in the ways of an earlier tradition, and many of the younger ones are fresh from university literature departments where the stigma of 'practicality' still attaches to the use of English for any purpose save research, literary or philologica. "Under the force of a tradition which is especially, though certainly not peculiarly, Japanese, their debt of respect to and emulation of their guiding professors, leads them to labor over the production of scholarly monographs and books rather than secondary school teaching materials and methods. They are in this respect comparable to young American College instructors rather than to senior high school teachers."¹⁴

However, there are some positive aspects with regard to oral teaching of English. At privileged schools, mainly Christian schools, the pure oral method is used. The high school department which is attached to Kobe College is an example. The method of teaching English in Junior High School might be described as the oral dramatic method. No Japanese is spoken in the class room except for the explanation of phonetics—the position of vocal organs—at the beginning of the year. No formal grammar and translation is given during the first three years. Pupils learn a good deal of grammar but English is used in teaching even the grammar. As students' ability to understand and use the language increases, they learn to give commands, ask, and answer questions and at last to dramatize stories. Oral composition comes before written composition but during their first year they do learn to write simple compositions based on pictures, poems or stories. Everything taught the students in the first year and all through Junior and Senior High by American teachers is first presented

¹⁴ Brayant, *op. cit.*, p. 40.

through the ear. When the teacher feels that the students understand what they hear, they may be allowed to see the printed page.¹⁵ Thus, throughout junior and senior high school, girls are taught by American teachers at least three hours a week and the rest of the lessons are given by Japanese teachers. In Senior, they use textbooks for translation and grammar as other high school pupils do.

I should mention here that the case of Kobe College, like that of other so-called mission schools, is a special one. The pupils are selected by examination. For instance, it is said that all candidates for junior high school of Kobe College are the best girl graduates from the elementary schools. And usually 70% of the high school graduates go to Kobe College without the entrance examination. Therefore, the upper 70% of the pupils of the class need not prepare for the entrance examination, unless they would like to go to other colleges or universities, whereas other high school students, including candidates for Kobe College, must study hard for the preparation for the entrance examination. Also I must not overlook the fact that many seventh grade girls have knowledge of English beforehand. Usually the girls can write the alphabet sufficiently before it is taught at school. More or less they are taught English at home by parents, by brothers and sisters, or by tutors, not necessarily by the oral method, before they enter the junior high, and presumably after they enter the junior high too.

Mr. Masuyama wrote,

At several good schools teachers use the pure oral method. But when we observe the whole process of the students' learning, we notice that students study English from books—reading the explanation and so forth—outside the class room, and they make up for learning English in the class room by oral practice, even though teachers themselves think that they are teaching with

¹⁵ Cf. Angie Crew, "The Oral-Dramatic Method of Teaching English," *Kobe College Bulletin*, No. 10 (1959).

the oral method. Most of their learning, therefore, takes place through the non-oral method, and it is interesting to know that the students who excel in oral practice are those who have spent the most time in non-oral study.¹⁶

Learning a foreign language is essentially different from learning a mother tongue. The child, having no fixed speech habits, imitates his parents and the other speakers about him without prejudice. By a long process of trial and error, he finally attains fluency of speech and association of sound and meaning. An adult, on the other hand, has already acquired a set of speech habits so that he learns a foreign language by means of unnatural methods.

First of all, we should consider the fact that we Japanese are not living in an English speaking community, and that we can hardly observe the facts of spoken English except on the radio or from movies. It is natural that the motivation of students to speak English should die when students are no longer face to face with foreigners, or in infrequent contact with foreigners. In reality, again, all Japanese students do not aim at getting the automatic speech habits of English: rather, many of them study English as the means by which to study other fields through English books and periodicals. To read English is the first aim in studying English, I might say. The aims of English education stated above may be attained largely by reading. "Foreign languages, if they did not untie the tongue, certainly opened the eyes of our people. Foreign ideas, coming in the form of literature (in other words, in their best form) had the effect of giving an impression of the superiority of foreign civilization."¹⁷

Thinking of realities,—the present situation of the class room, the fact that many teachers now in the schools simply do not have sufficient command of English to use the new method effectively, etc.—some teachers think that there is no way except

¹⁶ Setsuo Masuyama, "On English Language Education," *The Rising Generation*, Vol. 103 (1957), p. 234. The translation is the present writer's.

¹⁷ Nitobe, *op. cit.*, p. 341.

to use the reading method; to leave oral practice to students' own study. When we consider the fact that, after all, the learning of English ends with mere mimicry of idiomatic expression through the practice of hearing the incorrect pronunciation of English by Japanese teachers, it seems more practical and reasonable to emphasize reading from the beginning, and, at the same time, to make an effort for practice of hearing, speaking, and writing to some extent. From the psychological point of view, it is desirable, too, to use visual study in addition to the audio and oral study. It is unnecessary to stick completely to the process of learning a mother tongue—by means of hearing, speaking, reading, and writing. In Japan, then, the knowledge of the English language system might be most practically given by the grammar-translation method.

Chapter II Traditional Grammar

English education in Japan has been based on the eighteenth and nineteenth century prescriptive English grammars. Their main source is Lindley Murray's *English Grammar* (1795). As a matter of fact, in Japan, a few scientific grammar books (historical grammar and descriptive grammar—discussed below) were published. However, these grammar books have been treated as advanced grammars. They are not referred to in teaching English grammar on the high school level. They are rather reference books for English majors. Thus, even though Japanese scholars and teachers aware of scientific grammar and often discuss how it might be adopted in the school grammars in the junior and senior high level, there is a gap between practical teaching and theoretical study in Japan: consequently the textbooks are still chiefly prescriptive.

In this chapter, as an introduction to the more detailed study of structuralism, I shall briefly survey the development of English grammar from the eighteenth century to the present, examining various concepts of and attitudes toward grammar.

The definition by Lindley Murray, "English grammar is the art of speaking and writing the English language with propriety"¹ seems to be a translation from the Latin definition, "Ars recte scribendi, rectique loquendi (art of writing and speaking correctly)," which governed grammarians for many years. And we must notice that 'recte', 'correctness', or 'propriety', was a very important element in the concept of grammar.

"Correctness" was discussed especially in the eighteenth century. In *A Proposal for Correcting, Improving, and Ascertaining The English Tongue* (1712), Swift said:

I do here, in the Name of all the Learned and polite Persons of the Nation, complain . . . that our Language is extremely imperfect, that its daily improvements are by no means in proportion to its daily Corruptions, that the Pretenders to polish and refine it, have chiefly multiplied Abused and Absurdities, and that in many Instances, it offends against every part of Grammar.²

Addison and Steele discussed the same matter in the *Spectator* and the *Tatler*. In the preface of his dictionary Dr. Johnson commented on

The English language, which . . . has itself been hitherto neglected; suffered to spread, under the direction of chance, into wide exuberance, resigned to the tyranny of time and fashion; and exposed to the corruptions of ignorance, and caprices of innovation.

It was in this century that 'correct' usage was established and the propriety of usage was discussed; for instance, they found incorrect such expressions as "between you and I", "it is me", "who is it for?", "this here", "that here"; and the double negative: they preferred "would rather" to "had rather, had better"; they preferred "different from" to "different than (or to)"; they thought that adjectives uncomparable in concept

¹ Lindley Murray, *English Grammar* (Exeter, N.H., 1821), p. 13.

² Quoted by Sterling Andrus Leonard, *The Doctrine of Correctness in English Usage 1700-1800* (Madison, 1929), p. 7.

such as *perfect*, *chief*, *round*, do not have comparative form; they distinguished the use of *lie* and *lay*, of *between* and *among*, and of *will* and *shall*. They raised questions whether it is correct or not to use *whose* as the genitive case of *which*; whether to use "from hence," whether to use "I don't like him doing that" or "I don't like his doing that"; and whether to use "you was" when *you* is singular; they discussed what case must follow *than* and *as*.³

The eighteenth century grammarians' discussions were based on 'reason', and on the example of Greek and Latin. They did not recognize that every language has illogical elements. Also they conceived of a "universal grammar"—"the grammar, which, without regarding the several idioms of particular languages, only respects those principles, that are essential to them all."⁴ Robert Lowth, one of the representative grammarians of this age, believed this theory. Further he thought "universal grammar" must be taught "with reference to some language already known, in which the terms are to be explained, and the rules exemplified."⁵ Thus, in his grammar, Lowth took Latin grammar for his model, setting up rules and using reason as the judge.

However, in the eighteenth century there was a contrasting viewpoint toward language. Adherents of this second principle were "primarily interested in studying the facts of usage, determining as much as possible of their history and causes, and attempting to classify them according to valid criteria of their social effects in communications."⁶ Joseph Priestly is an example of the adherents of this principle. He said, "It must be allowed, that the custom

³ Cf. "Earlier Grammarians," *Kenkyusha Dictionary of English Philology* (Tokyo: Kenkyusha, 1949).

⁴ Leonard, *op. cit.*, p. 48. It is interesting to know that linguists are now talking of a universal grammar again. See Whatmough, *Language: A Modern Synthesis* (New York: The New American Library, 1956), p. 26.

⁵ Robert Lowth, *A Short Introduction to English Grammar with Critical Notes* (Cambridge, 1811), p. 13.

⁶ Leonard, *op. cit.*, p. 13.

of speaking is the original, and only just standard of any language.”⁷ Also he thought that “the decision of ‘Time’ is better than those of ‘Synods’ or ‘Academies’ because the latter plan supposes the language actually fixed already, contrary to the real state of it; whereas a language can never be properly fixed, till all the varieties with which it is used, have been held forth to public view, and the general preference of certain forms have been declared, by the general practice afterwards.”⁸

His work, though it showed lack of training for linguistic research—he is famous as the scientist who discovered oxygen—is a precursor of the scientific study of English. It was, however, so remote from the general trend of thought in his time that it was without important influence. It was obscured by the brilliance of Lowth’s completely logical grammar, and was completely buried under Lindley Murray’s eclectic production. The prevailing view of language in the eighteenth century was, after all, that English could and must be subjected to a process of classical regularizing.

Lindley Murray’s *English Grammar* was in sense the synthetic completion of the eighteenth century grammars. In the preface, Murray called himself a compiler and called his work a ‘compilation’. Also he stated, “The authors to whom the grammatical part of this compilation is principally indebted for its materials, are Harris, Johnson, Lowth, Priestly, Beattie, Sheridan, Walker and Coote.”⁹ Murray took Latin grammar for his model in the description and system of grammar, and at the same time he adopted the opinions of Priestly and others and recognized the validity of common usage.

The system of Murray’s grammar is as follows:

⁷ Quoted by Leonard, *op. cit.*, p. 142.

⁸ Leonard, *op. cit.*, p. 144.

⁹ Murray, *op. cit.*, p. 5.

Part I. Orthography—Letters, Syllables, Spelling.

Part II. Etymology

1. A general view of the parts of speech.
2. Of the articles
5. Of substantives—(general, gender, number, case)
4. Of adjective—(general, nature, degree)
5. Of pronouns—(personal, relative, adjective pronouns)
6. Of verbs—(general, nature, number and person, moods and participles, the potential mood, tenses, the conjugation of auxiliary verbs *to have* and *to be*, passive voice, irregular verb, defective verb).
7. Adverb
8. Preposition
9. Conjunction
10. Interjections
11. Derivation

Part III. Syntax

1. Of the article ix
2. Of the noun, (Of several nouns joined by copulative ii, of nouns connected by disjunctives iii; of nouns of multitude iv; of one noun governing another in the possessive case x)
3. Of the pronoun (of pronouns agreeing with their antecedents v; of the relative being nominative to the verb vi; of the relative preceded by nominative of different persons vii)
4. Of the adjective viii
5. Of the verb (agreement with the nominative case i; active requiring the objective case xi; of one verb governing another in the infinitive mood xii; of verbs related in point of time xiii)
6. Of the participle xiv
7. Of the rules respecting adverbs (of the position of adverbs of two negatives xvi)

8. Of preposition xvii
9. Of conjunctions (connecting the same moods, tenses, and cases xvii; requiring the subjunctive mood, etc. xix)
10. Of interjection v, xxi
11. Of comparison by the conjunction *than* or *as* xx
12. General rule of syntax xxii
13. Directions for parsing

Part IV. Prosody

1. Of pronunciation—(accent, quantity, emphasis, pauses, tone)
2. Versification

Part. V. Punctuation

1. Of the comma
2. Of the semicolon
3. Of the colon
4. Of the period
5. Of the dash, notes of interrogation, exclamation, capitals

In the table of contents, Part III is written in this order, without chapter numbers, However, in the text, this order is not observed. Murray arranged in the order indicated above in Roman numerals. And these Roman numerals are the rule numbers. Under each rule, there are subrules—detailed rules. These detailed rules and their explanation show the prescriptive nature of Murray's grammar.

English Grammar, first published in 1795, ran through, in its various forms, more than two hundred editions during the nineteenth century. While thus Murray's prescriptions were being memorized by thousands of persons, however, a group of scholars, chiefly German, were exploring the realities of language. Rasmus Rask, Jacob Grimm and Franz Bopp were among this group.

Historical and comparative linguistic studies made astonishing progress in the nineteenth century; as Jespersen wrote, "It is the

pride of the linguistic science of the last hundred years or so that it has superseded older methods by historical grammar, in which phenomena are not only described, but explained.”¹⁰ Grammars which were published in the nineteenth century contained historical explanations. Moreover, the theoretical study of general language was also begun. So-called scientific grammar (historical grammar and descriptive grammar) appeared.¹¹ To the scientific grammarian, the rules are not what he studies; rather he examines the way in which speakers and writers belonging to a particular community or nation actually use their mother tongue.

Henry Sweet's *New English Grammar* (1900) may be taken as the exponent of the state of linguistics at the end of the nineteenth century.¹² According to Sweet, a grammar gives the general facts of language, whereas a dictionary deals with the special facts. Also, “the first business of grammar, as of every other science, is to observe the facts and phenomena with which it has to deal, and to classify and state them methodically.”¹³ Also Sweet said:

¹⁰ Otto Jespersen, *Philosophy of Grammar* (New York: Henry Holt & Company, 1924), p. 30.

¹¹ In Japan, as noted above, the scientific grammars are referred especially in advanced textbooks on the college level. For instance, Mr. Kawai, whose book will be referred to later in this paper, indicated his reference books as follows: Abbott: *Shakespearian Grammar*; Bain: *A Higher English Grammar*; Bradley: *The Making of English*; Curme: *A Grammar of the English Language*; Syntax; *A Grammar of the English Language, Parts of Speech & Accidence*; *College English Grammar*; Jespersen: *Essentials of English Grammar*; *Modern English Grammar*, I. II. III. IV.; *Philosophy of Grammar*; *System of Grammar*; *Analytic Syntax*; Kellner: *Historical Outlines of English Syntax*; Mason: *English Grammar*; Morris: *Historical Outlines of English Accidence*; *Elementary Lessons in Historical English Grammar*; Onions: *An Advanced English Syntax*; Palmer: *A Grammar of Spoken English*; Poutsma; *A Grammar of Late Modern English*, 5 vols; Sonnenschein: *Soul of Grammar*; *New English Grammar*; Sweet: *New English Grammar*; Wyld: *Historical Study of the Mother Tongue*; as well as Hosoe, Ichikawa, Otsuka and Saito.

¹² Otto Funke, “On the System of Grammar,” *Archivum Linguisticum*, Vol. 3, (1951), p. 6.

¹³ Henry Sweet, *New English Grammar* (Oxford: The Clarendon Press, 1900), p. 1.

grammar may be regarded either from a theoretical or practical point of view. From the theoretical point of view grammar is the science of language. . . . Considered from a practical point of view, grammar is the art of language.¹⁴

Thus, to Sweet, grammar is both science and art. At any rate, in his definition of grammar, in his concept of a grammarian's business, and in his statement, "the rules of grammar have no value except as statements of facts,"¹⁵ Henry Sweet is much different from most earlier grammarians.

Also Sweet emphatically stresses that two-fold aspects of language, its outward form and its psychological (logical) content. The principal question for him is how to present these two spheres and their interrelation in the description of a language structure. In this point, too, Sweet is clearly different from older grammarians who did not concern themselves with this matter. Their so-called 'etymology' was a mixture of both aspects, and their 'syntax', based on word-groups, "placed the formal problem in the foreground."¹⁶

Sweet was also aware of the difference between synchronic and diachronic grammar. He declared that grammar is either 'descriptive' or 'explanatory', (i.e. historical or comparative). "It is evident," he says, "that all study of grammar must begin with being purely descriptive. Thus it is of no use to study the history of inflections in different periods of a language, if we have not previously got a clear idea of what inflections really are."¹⁷

The close of the nineteenth century marked the end of a long chapter of linguistic science and paved the way for the development of linguistic science in the twentieth century. The merging of two streams of study, the historical-comparative and the philosophical-descriptive, has made clear some principles that were

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 1 and p. 5.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 5.

¹⁶ Funke, *op. cit.*, p. r.

¹⁷ Sweet, *op. cit.*, p. 204.

not apparent to the Indo-Europeanists of the nineteenth century.¹⁸

In the United States, the first necessity for purely synchronic linguistic analysis arose in connection with American Indian languages which presented special problems of transcription and grammatical description because of their marked divergence from familiar West European linguistic types.¹⁹

The linguistic study, which started with, or resulted from, the study of American Indian languages brought remarkable advance in methodology and analysis of language. The necessity of the descriptive approach is repeatedly emphasized as a fundamental point of method in Bloomfield's *Language*.²⁰ In the late 1930's, a number of younger scholars began to experiment with the application of descriptive techniques to a great many languages, and now there is a group called structuralists.

Structuralists have been attempting to eradicate certain misconceptions concerning language, and simultaneously to find new and more realistic ways of describing linguistic structure. They have concerned themselves almost exclusively with spoken language. That is, to structuralists, there is no such thing as 'written language'. There is speech and there is writing and of these two, speech is basic in human life, and writing is a reflection of speech. Structuralists think that language is a living, growing organism in a constant state of flux. There is no such thing as 'correct' and 'incorrect', 'grammatical' and 'ingrammatical', 'right' and 'wrong' in language. Correctness rests upon usage; correctness is not determined by appeals to logic, etymology, or the traditions of earlier days. All usage is relative; all languages and

¹⁸ Leonard Bloomfield, *Language* (New York; Henry Holt and Company, 1933), p. 19.

¹⁹ Robert Hall, "American Linguistics, 1925-1950," *Archivum Linguisticum*. Vol. 3. (1951), p. 112.

²⁰ Hall remarked: "Without any knowledge of Bloomfield's *Language*, it is hard even to understand the basic assumption of which American linguists work." *op. cit.*, p. 110.

dialects are of equal merit, each in its own way. A dictionary or grammar is not valid as the authority for speech.²¹

The theory of usage, resting upon appropriateness, leads to the recognition of levels of usage rather than a single standard usage. (This point will be discussed later). Fries states, "The linguistic scientists are busy analysing and classifying the facts of speech. To know the facts and to understand language processes are to a linguistic scientist ends in themselves. He leaves to others, usually, the engineering applications of the knowledge he has won. To judge the facts of language usage, to reduce them to a norm is not for him."²²

Chapter III Structuralism and Fries' *Structure of English*

According to Fries, in order to attain the goal of language learning (to analyze and classify the material he learns), the student must have either the child's long years of trial and error, or some training in the technique of linguistic analysis. This is where linguistics comes in; to make use of the analytical ability that the normal grown person has, to help him see the pattern, to know the linguistic structure of the language.

The traditional grammar has been criticized for its unscientific definitions and classification of the parts of speech, and for the question of how systematic it is. Indeed, some definitions are dependent upon meaning; some parts of speech are defined by formal characteristics; and some are defined by their relationship to other words. The traditional grammar lacks the fixed scientific standpoint in the classification and in the description.

Structuralists introduced the technique of descriptive linguistic analysis as the substitution for the earlier grammars. Briefly

²¹ Cf. Hall, *Leave Your Language Alone!* p. 6, and National Council of Teachers of English, "The Modern View of Grammar and Linguistics," *The English Language Arts* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952).

²² Charles C. Fries, *The Teaching of the English Language* (New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons, 1927), p. 105.

speaking, the content of structural linguistics is the formulation of a method of linguistic analysis and the formulation of its application. The whole schedule of procedures is designed to begin with the raw data of speech and end with a statement of grammatical structure: the setting up of elements, and the statement of the distribution of these elements. First, the distinct phonologic elements are determined and the relations among them investigated. Then the distinct morphologic elements are determined and the relations among them investigated. The ultimate aim of a descriptive analysis is to produce the complete grammar of a linguistic system, in purely synchronic and structural terms.¹

The analytical procedure of the new linguistics is evidently different from that of traditional grammars. The structuralists emphasize that there must be no appeal to meaning, to abstract logic, or to philosophy in making classification, and that the parts of speech must be defined either by their inflection, or else by their syntactic function. As an example, I may explain the classification of *two*, *too*, and *to*. That is, according to the traditional grammar, though 'two', 'too', and 'to' have the same sound, they have different meanings and functions; hence they are classified into 'numeral', 'adverb', and 'preposition' by meaning and function. According to the structuralists, the distribution, i. e. the position of occurrence of forms, of [tu] is particular. [tu] which has a distribution similar to that of 'three' or 'four', makes a morpheme 'two'; and [tu] which has a distribution similar to 'also', etc. makes a morpheme 'too'; and [tu] which has a distribution similar to 'from', 'with', or 'of' makes a morpheme 'to'. (The writer doubts whether meaning underlies the process of indication of distribution).

¹Hall, *op. cit.*, p. 121. Bloomfield and some of his followers divide the linguistic field largely into three parts: 1. Phonetics and Phonemics; 2. Morphology (dealing with the structure of words); and 3. Syntax (dealing with the combination of words in phrases and sentences). In general, modern linguists call only the last two parts 'grammar' and the whole three parts 'linguistics'.

There are several viewpoints from which we may write a grammar. For instance, we may write a grammar from the morphological viewpoint. We can get Noun, Pronoun, Adjective, Adverb and Verb by inflection, distinguishing them from Particles which have no inflection. Also we may classify the words by suffixes. However, it is not sufficient to classify word-classes by only morphological features. There are a few adjectives which have inflection, *-er, -est*. The suffix *-ly* is not always present in the Adverb's formal characteristics. Some adverbs, *by, down, in, on, up*, are included among Particles—they are not distinguishable from the Preposition morphologically. We cannot tell whether *love, smoke* or *talk* are nouns or verbs when each of them appears alone. English has lost many inflections. In contrast with the Japanese language,² English has functional shift—English can shift parts of speech easily without the change of form. For instance, *suspicion* is supposedly a noun, and we have a suitable corresponding verb, *suspect*, but many Americans want to use *suspicion* as a verb, also. A change of this sort may be natural to a distributive language in which parts of speech seem not to be very important as such, and in which relationships between words are intricate and flexible. We have to consider the morphological characteristics in analysis; however, they are not conclusive.

As compensation for the loss of inflection, word-order has become important in English; the word-order and patterns are fixed. From the syntactic viewpoint, we may also classify the word-classes. The report of a sixth grade teacher is interesting. He said that through such examples as “the help,” “they help,”

² Japanese inflections are determined by the following word, not by tense or case. Japanese verbs end with [u] sound in the end-form; adjectives end with [i] and the adjectival verbs end with [da]. A word which ends with the [u] sound in the end-form and has a lexical meaning can be judged as a verb. (The end form means that no word follows). In other words, a noun has to have the morphological characteristics of a verb in order to be used as a verb. However, it is not difficult to add a verbal form to a noun.

“the work,” “they work,” “the kid,” “they kid,” pupils can distinguish various functions of one word. He said:

the students may be prepared for eventually seeing that, grammatically the important point is not that nouns name persons, places, and things, but that definite devices signal that certain words represent persons, places, and things—even when one does not know what the person, place, or thing is.³

This is the method Fries took in his *Structure of English* to describe English from the syntactic viewpoint. In this chapter, since Fries is one of leading structuralists, I shall examine his works as representative of that of the structuralists though other structuralists do not agree with Fries in all respects—there is no accord of opinions in the use of terminology, in concept, or in method among structuralists.

Fries carried out considerable research into the structure of modern English, using the method of descriptive linguistics, contemplated from both a theoretical and a practical point of view. In 1952, he published *The Structure of English*. Fries was concerned almost entirely with spoken English, the work being based upon an investigation of mechanically recorded conversations spoken over, in all, some 50 hours, by some 300 speakers. He started from the sentence and its different kinds which are classified according to the special type of responses. He then went on to find out the elementary units, namely parts of speech. He assumed that all words that could occupy the same set of positions in the patterns of English single free utterances must belong to the same part of speech. He set the following test frames: Frame A. *The concert was good (always)*; Frame B. *The clerk remembered the tax (suddenly)*; and Frame C. *The team went there*. And he started with the minimum free utterance “the concert was good” as the first test frame and set out to find all the words that could

³Robert Geist, “Structural Grammar and the Sixth Grade,” *American Speech*, Vol. 31 (1956), p. 11.

be substituted for the word *concert* with no change of structural meaning. He named the words of this list Class 1 words. By the same procedure he got Class 2 words—words that can be substituted for *was*, *remembered* or *went* in the test frames; Class 3 words—substitutive words of *good*, and class 4 words—words that can substituted for *always* or *suddenly*. The words in these four classes are called Form words.

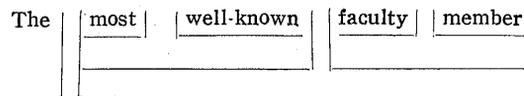
Next he gathered into groups the words that he did not include in those four classes. Using the same test frames and same procedure of analysis by process of substitution, he got fifteen groups and called those group words Function words.

In rejecting analysis according to meaning, the author sets out to find formal characteristics by which to identify each functioning unit and structure, and then to discover the meaning signalled by the structures thus identified and distinguished by formal contrasts. His method starts from a description of the formal devices that are present and the patterns that make them significant, and arrives at the structural meanings as a result of analysis.⁴ Later he applied the principle of immediate-constituent analysis.⁵

Fries' *Structure of English* has elicited voiced responses among

⁴ J. A. Sheard, "Book Review," *Modern Language Review*, Vol. 49 (1954). p. 220.

⁵ The idea of immediate constituents is applicable to both compound and complex words, and also to phrases. A word which contains three or more morphemes is analyzed into constituents. The two morphemes which are in the closest kin-relationship are called immediate constituents. For example, the adjective *unmanly* does not consist simply of the three morphemes, *un*, *man*. and *ly*; its immediate constituents are the complex word *manly* and the prefix *un*-. Likewise the phrase *The most well-known faculty member* is analyzed into immediate constituents as follows:



linguists and language teachers.⁶ Most of the many published reviews point out the weaknesses of Fries' theory and procedures in some way or another. There is no fixed opinion about structuralists in regard to teaching. The theory and proposals are still disputable.

The classification of the parts of speech in *The Structure of English* might be a more logically satisfactory classification than the traditional one. Instead of using traditional terminology Fries used numerals to identify his four classes (Class 1, Class 2, etc.) and letters to identify his groups (Group A, Group B, etc.), whereas many scholars have criticized the classification and terminology of the traditional grammar and have not proposed replacements for them. However, in spite of his thoroughgoing research, he still had to explain functions by the traditional terms such as 'subject', 'object', 'predicate nominative', 'appositive', 'noun adjunct', or 'modifier'. When one compares the result of this scientific research with the unscientific traditional grammar, he may be reminded of the Japanese proverb, "A great cry and little wool." After all, Class 1 words are almost the same as nouns, and Class 2 words the same as verbs. Pooley asked why "Class 1" is better than "substantive" or "Class 2" is better than "verb".⁷ Sledd suggested, "Since the great majority of his Class 1 words, for example, would be nouns in any freshman handbook, it seems wiser to take advantage of this overlap and to preserve the traditional names,

⁶ Examples: Karl Dykema, "Progress in Grammar," *College English*, Vol. 14 (1952); Max Betschinger, *English Studies*, Vol. 34 (1953); James V. Downer *Language Learning*, Vol. 4 (1952-3); Norman E. Eleason, *Modern Language Notes*, Vol. 691 (1954); V. Nelson Francis, *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, Vol. 40 (1954); Edna Lue Furnen, Archibald A. Hill, *Journal of English and German Philology*, Vol. 51 (1952); Robert C. Pooley, *American Speech*, Vol. 28 (1953); J. A. Sheard, *Modern Language Review*, Vol. 49 (1954); James Sledd, *Modern Philology*, Vol. 50 (1953); and Harry R. Warfel, *Who Killed Grammar?* (1952), etc. Some of these book reviewers' comments or opinions are referred to in this paper.

⁷ Robert C. Pooley, "Grammar in a New Key," *American Speech*, Vol. 28 (1953), p. 39.

despite the risk of confusion between the old and new definition, than to excite unnecessary irritation.”⁸

It might be true that morphological and syntactical classifications should always be kept apart. However, we can use the old terms and avoid the confusion between the old and new definitions, and between syntactic and morphological nature, in making clear from what standpoint the term is used. And it might be the best way to make use of the results of scientific research without destroying the school grammar. At this point, Gardiner’s statement comes to mind.

I believe it will be found that most of the traditional terms, though often badly named, correspond to real facts and distinction in the linguistic material. . . . to my mind it is not so much the traditional terms that are un-acceptable as the explanations of them which are usually given.⁹

The Structure of English offers a description, analysis, and set of definitions and formulas based firmly and consistently on the easiest, or at least the most objective, aspect of language: form in the place of the traditional grammar’s weaknesses.¹⁰ However, sometimes explanations are inferior to that of traditional grammar. For instance, Fries could only say, “In the sentence *The poorest are always with us* the word ‘poorest’ has the formal characteristics of a Class 3 word but the marker ‘the’ in this position supersedes the word form and thus in this utterance ‘poorest’ as a functioning unit is Class 1.”¹¹ The traditional grammar explains, “*The* plus adjective is Noun equivalent: Adjective with the definite article implies the class of person.”

⁸ James Sledd, “Book Review,” *Language*, Vol. 31 (1955), p. 338.

⁹ Alan Hendersen Gardiner, *The Theory of Speech and Language* (Oxford: The Clarendon Press, 1932), p. 8.

¹⁰ Cf. Nelson Francis, “Book Review,” *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, Vol. 40 (1954), p. 305.

¹¹ Fries, *The Structure of English: An Introduction to the Construction of English Sentences* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1952), pp. 140-1.

As mentioned above, in English, functional shift is common. As in the sentence, "Many are called, but few are chosen," *many* and *few*, which are Particles and Group A words, can take the position of Subject. The flat adverb is also common in American informal usages. Therefore there must be a place where these matters might be dealt with.

Fries classified words largely into Form Class (Full) words and Function words. He defined a function word as one that has little or no meaning apart from the grammatical idea it expresses. However, it seems to me that in a strict sense there is no word without meaning. Especially in a historical language like English, there is no pure function word. Each word has its own history. For instance, *shall*, which belongs to Group B according to Fries, seems still to suggest a power outside its subject or the speaker, and also *will* (Group B) continues to suggest a power within its subject or speaker. *Shall* and *will* have not completely lost their ability to indicate obligation and will. However, the idea of distinction between function words and full or form class words might be permissible relatively, and it might be helpful in learning English, because the function words make a language more or less characteristic; as in the Japanese language, the helping words, "jo-shi" (function words), are troublesome for foreigners.

There is a question to be discussed and to be cleared also in Fries' treatment of function words. As an example let us examine Group D, which is a group of intensifiers. The group is established with the following frame: The concert may not be *very* good then. Substituting in this frame, Fries gets, as members of Group D, *very*, *quite*, *really*, *real*, *pretty*, *fairly*, *rather*, *awfully*, *awful*, *any*, *too*, *more* and *most*. Fries does not tell us whether he has given the complete list of the structure words in his material; but the implication is that if the group extends beyond this list, it does not extend far. It is clear, however, we find many other words which can substitute for

very in this frame; the concert may not be *especially/entirely/exceedingly* / good then. It is evident that Fries does not intend to include all of these words as members of Group D. That is, Fries analyzes *entirely* in "They are entirely wrong about the basis of the agreement" as a Class 4 word. We must therefore ask what are the characteristics of *entirely* and *exceedingly* which exclude them from Group D, even though they may substitute for *very* in the frame word.

In making his distinction between parts of speech and function groups, Fries emphasizes four points. 1. Function groups are "closed classes" of limited membership, changing slowly; parts of speech are "open classes" of indeterminate membership, constantly shifting. 2. Parts of speech account for all the positions in "minimum free utterances"; function groups appear in "expanded free utterances." 3. In the four large classes, the lexical meanings of the separate words are rather clearly separable from the structural meanings of the arrangement in which these words appear. In the words of fifteen groups it is usually difficult if not impossible to indicate a lexical meaning apart from the structural meaning which these words signal. 4. Members of the parts of speech are often marked as such by formal markers, whereas members of the function groups have no relationship in form.

In spite of this statement, still something is not clear. For instance, according to Fries, *awfully* belongs to Group D, yet it can be used to complete certain minimum free utterances like "He conducted himself awfully," as far as English construction is concerned. Also point No. 4 tempts us to consider *awfully* as a Class 4 word.

In *American English Grammar*, Fries deals with "Function words used with Adjectives."¹² For example, *very*, originally in English an adjective meaning 'true', as in Chaucer's description

¹² Fries, *American English Grammar* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1940), pp. 199ff.

of the knight, "a verrey parfit gentil knight" (a true, perfect, well-born knight), or in his "And if that it a verrey angel be" (and if that it a real angel be), wherever it stood before another adjective it tended to lose its full word meaning of 'true', 'real', 'genuine' and became a function word of degree. In similar fashion *pretty*, an adjective originally meaning 'cunning', or 'crafty', then 'clever', 'skilful', and later 'pleasing', 'comely', whenever it stood before another adjective, has since the sixteenth century tended to lose its fully word meaning and has become a function word of degree. Examples of other words used as intensifying function words or function words of degree with the full word meanings fading out under the pressure of the word order pattern for modification are *might*, *right*, *real*, *stark*, *dead*, *precious*, *terrible*, *awful*, *awfully*, *devilish* and *damned*. Fries adds that in "It will take a good long time to bring them right," *good* also becomes an intensive function word.

It is understandable that *very* is a function word, because it does not take part as Subject, Object, or Complement; it appears in expanded free utterance only. However, *pretty* is able to be used in these ways: *She is pretty*; *This is a pretty flower*. In these sentences, *pretty* must be classified as Class 3 word, even though Fries does not put *pretty* in his list of Class 3 words.

It seems that to distinguish intensifiers as one group from the larger group of degree is a new idea and useful. Therefore, it is desirable to have a more detailed explanation for foreign students.

As to the modification, I would like to add here a point; that is, in structuralism, it is unnecessary to explain the difference between *silk hat* and *silken hat*. It does not make any difference whether the modifier of the noun is adjective, noun or participle in structure. However, evidently *silk hat* and *silken hat* are different. Hence we need to go farther than *The Structure of English* does—from form to meaning. We need more than is given in such a statement as the following: "The meanings in the structure of modification—the meaning relationships between

the 'modifier' and the 'head'—vary widely, but the specific differences of meaning in this variety are on the whole tied to the formal make-up of the modification on structure.”¹³

In any language, the same meaning can be conveyed in various forms. Also the same form does not always convey the same meaning. The meaning conveyed in *He walked three hours* and in *He walked for three hours* is the same, but the speech forms are different. In *He likes to swim* and *He likes swimming*, the difference is between to-infinitive and gerund. And both *to swim* and *swimming* are Objects. How do structuralists deal with these matters? It is natural that structuralism should be criticized in that it excludes meaning from the linguistic study.

The traditional grammar, of which the tool of analysis is 'meaning', has not necessarily ignored such formal matter as sentence patterns. We have been taught five English sentence patterns:

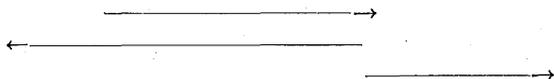
S (Subject)	+ V (Verb)				Time flies
S	+ V	+ C (Complement)			A rose is red.
S	+ V	+ O (Object)			I write a letter
S	+ V	+ O	+ O		She gave me a book.
S	+ V	+ O	+ C		He makes her happy.

These five sentence patterns were helpful to my understanding of English structure. I myself enjoyed the process of learning diagramming and found that it did help me understand the construction of English. Nobody has denied that these patterns are inevitable to the understanding of English, that they are basic patterns. And in this illustration of sentence pattern, verbs may be divided into transitive verb and intransitive verb, and complete verb and incomplete verb, whereas by Fries' treatment Class 2 is not subdivided.

As Warfel stated, "It is not possible to see the slightest advantage in the proposed parsing and diagramming systems over

¹³ Fries, *The Structure of English*, p. 239.

The man whom I saw yesterday at Kanda was her uncle.



In this respect, the notion of endocentric and exocentric construction¹⁶ seems important.

Traditional analysis and diagraming only reduce English sentences to the plain one-direction expression instead of showing the cumulative construction of English. The idea and method proposed by structuralists may indicate the direction of modification more clearly than that of the former diagraming method, and may be able to indicate the cumulative structure of English to Japanese students to whom such understanding is particularly important.

It is true that traditional grammar has emphasized more the inner meaning than the exterior form. It may be said also that the traditional grammar has described each part of the engine of the car but has not described the structural system of the engine nor has it taught how to drive the car. In this respect, it seems to me that new linguistics, the grammar of structuralists, teaches how to drive. In other words, "words as isolated units are insufficient for communication; they must be part of another unit—which we have agreed to call a sentence."¹⁷ Fries has emphasized this point, describing words as functioning units.

As repeatedly remarked, the traditional means of defining parts of speech are undependable because of vacillation between function

¹⁶ If a phrase has the same function as one or more of its immediate constituents, it is an Endocentric phrase and has an Endocentric construction. "Fresh milk" has the same function as "milk" in "Bring me some milk," "Drink this milk." The constituent (here *milk*) which has the same function as the phrase (here *fresh milk*) is the Head, and the other constituent (here *fresh*) is the Attribute. If a phrase has not the same function as any of its immediate constituents, it is an Exocentric phrase and has an Exocentric construction. An exocentric construction has neither a head nor an attribute. Bernard Block and George L. Trager, *Outline of Linguistic Analysis* (Baltimore, Md.: Linguistic Society of America, 1942), pp. 76-77.

¹⁷ Karl Dykema, "Progress in Grammar," *College English*, Vol. 14 (1952), p. 95.

and form on the one hand, and meaning on the other.¹⁸ It is an achievement of structuralists that the traditional parts of speech are redefined in a functioning structure.

“Everyone seriously concerned with the teaching of English grammar will have to read Professor Fries’ book (*The Structure of English*). In a way no other work successfully does, it both lucidly reveals the general method of and aim of the new grammarians, i. e., the structuralists, and shows how this method is applicable to grammatical study on the high school and college levels.”¹⁹ However, evidently his work is not complete grammar. The exclusion of meaning in the study of language is fatal to completeness and understanding of languages. Its explanation of functional shift is not superior to that of the traditional grammars, and its treatment of modifiers is insufficient. There are disputable points in Fries’ treatments of function words. His grammar has no place where synonyms in different forms and a word or a pattern with various meanings are dealt with. His work is “introductory and hence illustrative rather than exhaustive.”²⁰ In short, Fries’ thoroughgoing research is not as helpful for us Japanese in learning English as we expected.

Chapter IV The Article

“Articles” are troublesome for us Japanese. It is very difficult for Japanese to master the uses of articles partly because the Japanese language does not have articles, and partly because to the Japanese the actual uses of articles in English, as well as the rules for and descriptions of those uses in the grammar, seem complicated, cumbersome, and somewhat illogical. In this chapter,

¹⁸ cf. *Ibid.*, p. 96.

¹⁹ Norman E. Eleason. “Fries: *Structure of English*,” *Modern Language Notes*, Vol. 69 (1954), pp. 66-67. However, in the following passages, Eleason mentioned: “. . . but succeeds less well in demonstrating that the necessary reform can be effective only by adopting this type of analysis.”

²⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 67.

therefore, I shall deal with articles as a special problem in the learning and teaching of English in Japan.

“Article” came from the Latin *articulas*, and the Greek *arthron* meaning ‘joint’. Articles are divided into definite and indefinite articles. The definite article is the weakened form of an old demonstrative pronoun now represented by *that*.¹ The definite article *the* does not agree with the substantive to which it is attached. It has lost completely the means it had in Old English to differentiate the form of the article to be used with a plural noun. The indefinite article, *a(n)*, has developed from the word *one*.

In Old English the article was recognized as one independent part of speech. At present the article is classified, but not by the structuralists, as a pronoun or as a limiting adjective because of the etymology of *the* adjective-function of the articles.

Myers only mentions that the articles lack formal characteristics, that except in making comparisons with foreign languages there is very little that can profitably be said about them.² However, many functions have been attributed to the articles as essential ones, such as determination, realization, individualization, etc.³ Despite the apparent simplicity of the English articles—no inflections according to number, case, or gender—there are pitfalls for those who have not grown up with the idioms.

Perhaps the grammar books for the English-speaking people need not take many pages for articles. For instance, in *Modern American Grammar and Usage* by Hook and Mathews, only three

¹ In OE: *sē*, *ðæs*, *ðæm* (*ðām*), *ðone* (*ðāne*, *ðæne*), *ðy* (*ðē*, *ðon*); *ðæt*, *ðæs*, *ðæm* (*ðām*), *ðæt*, *ðy* (*ðē*, *ðon*); *seō* (*sio*), *ðære*, *ðære*, *ðā*, *ðāra* (*ðæra*), *ðæm*, (*ðām*).

² L. M. Myers, *American English: A Twentieth Century Grammar* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954), p. 74.

³ Otto Jespersen, *Modern English Grammar*, Part VII. (Copenhagen: Ejnar Minksgaard, 1949), p. 263.

pages were taken for articles. And the three pages included the comparison of English articles with French and German in which articles are inflectional. As to the use of the definite article, Hook and Mathews quoted the definition of *the*⁴ from *Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary* and said that the definitions indicated its uses, although a detailed study would occupy a hundred pages or more.⁵ In this grammar, the description of the indefinite article is more simple than that of the definite article.

In contrast to such simplicity as that of Hook and Mathews, the Japanese English school-grammars incline to explain the articles in detail, using as many illustrations or examples as possible. For instance, Mr. Kawai takes one chapter (about ten pages) for the articles in his *New English Grammar* (Tokyo: 1950). His explanations are very much in detail. *New English Grammar* is not exceptional in its lengthy treatment. I may say it represents the typical textbook in Japan. The author intended to make his book moderate and to have it function as the introductory grammar to the advanced courses, not as the reference book for the preparatory study for the entrance examination. This book has been used widely in Japan.⁶

⁴(1) That (person or thing) in particular; as, to pick out *the* culprit. (2) That (person or thing) close or at hand in space, time, thought. etc.: as, news of *the* hour; *the* heat is intense. (3) That (one) so designated or distinguished—used esp. in titles; as *the* Duke of York. (4) That (one) having no fellow or equal; as *the* poet of his day. (5) Each; every; as ten cents *the* copy. (6) Any one (person or thing) typical of its genus, class, etc.; as, striped like *the* zebra. (7) Her, his, its, one's, or the like; as, to lead her by *the* hand; pleasing to *the* eye. (8) Before an adjective used substantively to indicate either a class of or an abstract idea; as, *the* sublime *the* pure in heart.

⁵Hook and Mathews, *Modern American Grammar and Usage* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1956), p. 264.

⁶Eleven editions of this book have been published. This book was used as the textbook in my freshman year at Kobe College. In this, as in other English grammars in Japan, the language is a mixture of Japanese and English: terminology and illustrations are in English; explanations are in Japanese; classificatory headings are again a mixture.

Kawai divided the main uses of the definite article into three sections: (1) Uses for the individual object or objects; (2) uses for the term used in the universal sense; and (3) uses as an adverb. Each separate item has from one to seven illustrations. For instance (1) has fifteen items and (2) has seven. Under (1.C.), "Before the Proper Noun", there are seven illustrations. Some of his examples are as follows: (1 G.) *The* used as the name of a disease, especially plural forms (e.g. *the blues, the influenza, the headache, etc.*); (1 L.) *the* used in a sense of the pre-eminent or the typical (e.g. "Caesar was *the* general of Rome"—NED); (1 N.) *the* used when an adjective modifies a proper noun. However, it is omitted when the adjective, such as *young, old, little, poor, etc.*, is used emotionally (e.g. "See what a rent *the* envious Casca made"—Shakespeare; "It was not so with old Mr. Osborne"—Thackeray).

Under (2), *the* as a generic article; *the* plus a singular common noun; *the* plus an adjective or a participle, are dealt with.

As to the uses of the indefinite article, Kawai gives us seven items. Also he deals with the position of articles. Usually the article comes before a noun, or before an adverb which modifies the attributive adjective. However, sometimes this rule is not observed. Kawai explains the exceptional position of articles in seven items. That is, when the adjective such as *all, double, half, both, etc.*, and determinative *such*, exclamatory *what*, and indefinite numeral *many* are used, and when *as, how, however, so, no, quite, too* or *r.ther* modify an adjective, the article often comes after the adjective (e.g., "*All the* next day John was absent."; "She spoke with *so slight a* foreign accent"—Thackeray).

There are fourteen items concerning the omission of the articles. Under each item two or three illustrations are given. Among them are the following items: (2) when a noun which indicates special family or social relation, or civil, military or ecclesiastical office, is used predicatively (e.g., "I was nursery-governess in a family where Mr. Copperfield used to visit."—

Dickens); (3) when the same kind of noun is used after a proper noun as apposition (e.g., Edward the Confessor, King of England); (4) when *master* or *mistress* is used in the sense of proficient (e.g., "He was master of most modern languages"). However, in both (2) and (3), *the* may be used, and in (4) *a* might be used. Many of the examples which Kawai gives us are alternative usages. It does not seem right to consider them as required usages.

*The Kenkyusha Dictionary of English Philology*⁷ deals chiefly with the omission of articles under the heading "Article". And again the given nineteen items include many alternative usages. And some of the indicated idiomatic phrases are not necessarily so. For instance, when *in place of* is used as the idiomatic expression as *in behalf of*, or *instead of* there might be no definite article before *place*; however, *in place of* is not necessarily used in that meaning, but sometimes it may be used vaguely; and in that case, *place* may be preceded by the article. Therefore, to put *in place of* under the "omission of articles" without any explanation may confuse students.

Thus, both of these Japanese books explain articles in far too much detail, yet their explanations seem still insufficient. Further, the real uses of the articles in present day American English do not necessarily agree with the rules or explanations stated in those books. There are also differences in the usages of articles between British English and American English. For instances, in American English, *Government* is preceded by the definite article, whereas in British English, *Government* is not preceded by the article. In colloquial American English, the name of a disease is often preceded by the definite article. Mencken gave an illustration of this point "the malaria", "the measles".⁸ Also in

⁷ Sanki Ichikawa, ed. *The Kenkyusha Dictionary of English Philology* (Tokyo. Kenkyusha, 1949). Eight editions of this book have been published.

⁸ Mencken, *The American Language* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1946), p. 161: "... An American does not say 'I had measles' but 'I had the measles'..." American usage is alteranative today.

America, the name of a district, a river or a lake appears without articles. In America, the name of a street does not take an article, whereas in British English, the name of a street generally is preceded by the definite article.

How are the articles dealt with in structural linguistics? As indicated above, Fries, in his *Structure of English*, emphasizes that the signals of structure are formal matters that can be described in physical terms; he rejects meaning as the basic tool of analysis. According to Fries' analysis, articles belong to Group A, one of the fifteen groups of function words. "Group A consists of all words that can occupy the position of *the* in this particular test frame—'The concert was good'."⁹ In this Group A, besides articles, possessive pronouns (*my, your, his, her, their, etc.*); the possessive case (*Mary's*); the demonstrative pronouns (*this, that, these, those*); numerals; and the so-called indefinite pronouns (*each, all, both, some, any, few, more, most, much, many, etc.*) are included. The words of this group all occur with Class 1 words (substantives). Structurally, when they appear in this position, they serve as markers of Class 1 words. They might be called "determiners". As Bloch and Tragger stated, "determiners" determine the sub-class of nouns—Bounded noun, Mass noun, and Abstract noun.¹⁰

Harold Whitehall, in his *Structural Essentials of English*, only stated as follows concerning articles:

Detailed discussion of the fifteen classes of English empty words is unnecessary here. It is enough to realize that they are all concerned with setting up a relational connection between something before and after them or with expressing one's feeling about what is stating. Thus there are two main types:

1. connecting words (including conjunctions, prepositions, pronouns, etc.);
2. tone words (including articles, intensifiers, auxiliaries, etc.).¹¹

⁹ Fries, *The Structure of English*, p. 89.

¹⁰ Cf. Bloch and Tragger, *Outline of Linguistic Analysis* (Baltimore, Md.: Linguistic Society of America, 1942), p. 78.

¹¹ Harold Whitehall, *Structural Essentials of English* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1956), p. 55.

To some extent the detailed discussion of these function words is necessary for foreigners. However, it is evident that from the structuralists' point of view there is no place to deal with differences in meaning found in sentences with the same word-order.

Fries' method of analysis by substitution gives us the idea that the articles can be substituted for by other Group A members, and that the articles somehow have a common function with other Group A members as determiners. But it is more meaningful to know the difference, for instance, between "Can *a boy* carry this luggage?" (No, but a man), and "Can *one boy* carry this language?" (No, but two boys can).

Again, Fries himself stated clearly :

The fact that some of these "words" (one, all, both, two, three, that, those, this, these, each, few, many, much, more, most, some, any, its, John's) may also appear in the position of Class 1 words does not concern us here; nor does the fact that *all* and *both* may occur before *the*.¹²

This statement is understandable in the light of his viewpoint and his aim. However, needless to say, in teaching English, at least to Japanese, these things—the shift of a part of speech, the unusual position of articles, or meaning in "*the sooner the better*" and "*once a week*"—must be explained some place in grammar. In short, the structuralists' description is of little help in learning articles.

Now, let us examine an older and largely ignored treatment of articles—that of Jespersen.¹³ His analysis of "article" is included in volume seven of *Modern English Grammar*. Unfortunately, Jespersen passed away before he completed Vol. 7. However, Niels Haislund, an adherent of Jespersen, carried on Jespersen's work. Haislund stated :

¹² Fries, *op. cit.*, p. 89.

¹³ I should like to express my regret here that Paul Christopherson's *The Articles* was not available.

If Otto Jespersen had lived to finish the present chapter himself, he would probably more or less briefly have discussed the various theories. He has in fact nowhere else attempted any exhaustive discussion of the problem, thus neither in the *Philosophy of Grammar* nor in the *System of Grammar*. In *Essential English Grammar* he only offers a fairly traditional exposition of the theory of articles in English. During his last illness he dictated a plan for the arrangement of the material to be discussed in the following chapters according to a "Theory of stages of familiarity, i.e. knowledge of what item of the class denoted by the word is meant in the case concerned." He expressly stated that he wanted to lay special stress on this theory.¹⁴

A basic theory in *Modern English Grammar* is briefly as follows :

Stage I. Complete unfamiliarity.

1. Unit-word : indefinite article.
2. Mass-word : zero¹⁵
3. Unit word plural : zero

Stage II. Nearly complete familiarity. The word in question still requires *the*.

1. The necessary determination given by context.
2. The necessary determination given by whole situation.

Stage III. Familiarity so complete that no article is needed.

1. Direct address (vocative)
2. Proper name
3. God
4. Father, uncle, baby, nurse, and other members of the family circle.
5. Dinner and other regular meals
6. Church, prison, town, etc. (chiefly in prepositional phrases denoting professional tours—further, *go to college, to sea*, etc.)
7. Periods and dates

The theory was new. And it is still unique in that he divided articles into three types; the definite article, indefinite article, and

¹⁴ Jespersen, *op. cit.*, pp. 416-7.

¹⁵ cf. "... the definite article and the indefinite article, as well as with the use of words without either of them (zero or the zero article)." *Ibid.*, p. 403. Note by Niels Haislund: "Otto Jespersen did not intend to use the term *zero*, but would have spoken about 'the bare word'."

the zero article. It is possible and convenient to utilize the concept of zero article if the form without articles has some function. The detailed explanations of the omission of the article in Japanese books show the necessity of the concept of the zero article.

Let us examine each item of the three stages of familiarity more in detail.

Stage I.

1. According to the theory of stage of familiarity, all combinations of the indefinite article *a* (*an*) with some word or word group must belong to Stage I. *A* denotes one member of the class, or species concerned but it does not indicate which member. In this sense, then, the so-called introductory and generic-use would be explained. Jespersen also proposed to use the term "all-representative use" instead of generic use, because *a* does not denote the class or species in itself, though with *a* the noun refers to all members of the class or species it denotes, as a representative of the members.

A as said above, denotes an indefinite member of a class. Therefore, if we find the indefinite article before a word ordinarily used as a proper name, this must have lost its function as a mere non-denotative label of some individual (person or thing), and must have acquired some class-noun quality. That is, in other words, this combination indicates remoter familiarity than original familiarity. In this case, *a* has a meaning such as 'a certain', 'one like', or 'a member of a family'. (Kawai mentioned this use without any reference to familiarity).

2. Mass-words connected with zero may denote: (1) an indefinite (undefined) quantity (part) of thing-meant (parti-generic) (e.g., "He took bread, and gave thanks, and brake it"—Luke 22:19); and (2) the whole genus (toto-generic) (e.g., "Charcoal is a black substance").

3. Plurals are semantically related to mass-words. Both of these in themselves denote an indefinite quantity, the differences being that mass-words denote un-countable, plurals countable quantities.

The use of the plural may be divided into toto-generic and parti-generic use like the use of mass words. [E.g. (a) Parti-generic sense: "Funds were lacking for the journey"; (b) Toto-generic sense: "For evils are apt to happen everyday."]

Substantives often have the zero article in predicatives, objects, and regimens of prepositions in many set phrases. It is worth noting that verbs most frequently used in these combinations are such more or less vaguely defined words (frequently in idiomatic phrases) as *do*, *get*, *have*, *keep*, *make* and *take* and *take* (e.g., *make haste*, *take care*, *break silence*, etc.).

Stage II. The definite article plus a substantive in the singular denotes one individual (supposed to be) more or less familiar to the speaker or writer.

1. (a) Explicit contextual basis. The pre-knowledge is given in the context, the thing or person is introduced to the listener or reader in some way. (e.g., "Once there lived an old tailor. The tailor was generally known in the village as the crook.")

(b) Implicit contextual basis. In the course of a conversation about a certain university, when *the* professor, or *the* library is mentioned.

2. (a) Situational basis. The whole situation is sufficient to show what the substantive refers to. For instance, *the* door, or *the* table, of the room in which the conversation is taken place.

(b) Constant situational basis: this is the usage that some grammarians explain with the concept of unique. *Modern English Grammar* explains as follows:

the conceptions they represent are (supposed to be) once for all existing in the minds of all English-speaking people, and thus, these words may be used in any situation, in the same meaning.

(e.g., *the* sun, *the* air, *the* devil).

Modern English Grammar also explains *typical the*: that is, the substantive with *the* denotes the typical or characteristic or particularly excellent specimen (e.g., "He plays *the* fool."; "She found him perfectly *the* gentleman in his behavior to all visitors").

The distributive use of the definite article is a kind of generic use. A certain unit of measurement is mentioned, often in connection with the quantity to be measured or valued, and this unit is conceived generically (e.g., "He could savour brandy at eight shillings *the* gallon").

Jespersen's opinion about the generic-use is that the commonest way of expressing a generic sense is by means of the singular with the definite article, and this is perhaps in a strict sense the only way; that in the speakers or writer's mind there is a more or less vague image of the member of the species in question, and this is somehow taken as representing the whole species. As the species is presupposed to be known to the speaker or writer, we must use the definite article when using the singular (e.g., "*The* fox... was considered as a mere nuisance"—Macaulay; "*The* rogue, like *the* artist and perhaps *the* gentleman, belongs to no class").

By the theory of stages of familiarity, *the* in exclamations in the sense of "what (a)!" is explained as "the speaker emotionally held out the person or thing in question for particular denunciation" (e.g., "The villain!"; "The insipidity, and yet the noise—the nothingness, and yet the self-importance of all those people!"—Austen).

Also, *the* before superlatives and ordinals is explained according to the theory, that is, the statement of the thing in question being something of the highest degree, or belonging in a definite place in the series of numbers, necessarily implies some knowledge of the thing and defines the word sufficiently to require *the* (e.g., "*The* case is of the greatest importance"; "*The* second person").

Stage III. Familiarity is so complete that no article (determinative) is need.

1. Address. As a rule words used in address (the vocative) have the zero article. Often, perhaps in most cases, the word in question is a proper name, and in many other cases the word has much the

same function as a proper name, the mere reference to the person addressed.

2. Proper name. A proper name strictly has a meaning only in connection with the person or thing it denotes; hence it necessarily involves some degree of familiarity with the thing-meant on the part of the speaker. According to the theory, therefore, the substantive needs no definite article. However, there are many cases in which the proper noun is preceded by the article. For instance, many place-names regularly take the definite article in English. For plural names *the* is the rule: the word denotes a plurality of units, and consequently is a kind of class-noun (e.g., "The Solomons was no place for a woman"). A Proper name denotes familiarity on the part of the speaker, and hence a plural name naturally takes the definite article like (other) class nouns. Use of the definite article with singular names is due to the following reasons: (1) The name is supposed to be an original common name, and *the* denotes familiarity; (2) Foreign influence, and (3) Ellipsis.

The also is sometimes used before a woman's name to confer a depreciatory sense. The speaker, as it were, does not want to be placed in the position of complete familiarity involved in a personal name with zero (e.g., "It was *the* Miss Heydinger who had addressed him").

3. God.

4. Familiar persons. We may notice the characteristic difference between the mention of *the matron* by a stranger, and the nurse's familiar mention of her as *matron*.

5. Dinner and other regular meals. Names of regularly recurring meals usually have zero. But if the food is referred to, or there are some clearly classifying elements about the word, the definite article is generally used.

6. Church, prison, town, etc. Names of public institutions are used with zero when the purpose for which they are meant is thought of rather than the actual building, etc. (e.g., "go to

church"; "school is over"). *Town* has the zero article when used in speaking of the town to which one is somehow connected, the town in which one has his business or office, etc. (e.g., in connection with certain prepositions, *in, to, from, about,* and others).

7. Periods and dates. Many of these are often used with the zero article, because they are felt as being in the same category as proper names, as indicated by use in many cases of capitals (e.g., *Sunday, May, Christmas*).

The use of the articles presents a great many intricate problems, and it is impossible to give a small number of settled rules available for all cases: furthermore, idiomatic usage very often runs counter to logic or fixed rules.¹⁶ However, the theory of stages of familiarity seems to be worthy of reconsideration in explaining uses of articles.

Jespersen's theory has received some attention by Japanese scholars, but it has not been used in the grammar books. Kawai seems to have borrowed some illustrations and examples from *Modern English Grammar*, but he does not accept the theory of stages of familiarity. He only took advantage of the explanations of the theoretical study. Kawai's descriptions, therefore, seem to be lacking in consistency and in accuracy. I think that the theory of stages of familiarity deserves a trial; that the theory and explanations might be of much benefit to Japanese students. At least, according to this theory, we can explain the uses of articles from a logical and consistent viewpoint, though the matter of familiarity is also subjective.

Chapter V Minor Problems: Syntax and Word Meaning

Speech is a human activity - activity on the part of one individual to make himself understood by another, and activity on the part of that other to understand what was in the mind of the first. In other words, speech can be viewed from two different

¹⁶ Jespersen, *op. cit.*, p. 416.

angles—that of the speaker (writer) and that of the hearer (reader).

In learning a language, we may start with either point of view. Of course, the ultimate goal of the two directions is identical, to participate in speech activity as a whole. In Japanese English education, however, the speaker's position has never been emphasized. The chief aim of English learning has been to translate English. To emphasize the hearer's or the reader's side only is onesided education. In order to attain the goal of thinking in English, both sides must be emphasized. Let us examine, then, what might be considered in learning English from the speaker's side.

When we aim at the practical use of English in speech, we are not necessarily concerned with detailed knowledge of the system of grammar and analytical explanations. We may take advantage of the sentence patterns illustrated in grammars. And some knowledge of word-order, of inflections, and of the use of function words is, of course, necessary to learners. After the study of the basic sentence patterns, we may express ideas or feelings in various ways according to our increasing command of vocabulary. Speech operates through reproduction by memory and through creation by analogy. When structural patterns are taught quite early, students might have a confidence that would allow them to attempt to speak the language much sooner than they otherwise would.¹

Therefore, some grammatical study is requisite in learning a foreign language from the speaker's side, too. However, grammar as a linguistic field essentially stands in the hearer's position. The linguist studies linguistic material as it is given, describes the structure, and explains the meaning of structure. The grammar to describe the structure would be called structural-descriptive

¹Nelson Francis, "Revolution in Grammar," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, Vol. 40 (1954), p. 311.

grammar.² If the grammar of structuralism is called structural-descriptive grammar, then the traditional grammar would be functional-interpretative grammar.³

Nakajima suggested that there might be such a grammar which is written from the speaker's side. Such a grammar might be called expressive-analogical grammar.⁴ Perhaps it would go from notion to expression (form). It seems to me also that such a grammar might be written from the viewpoint of the learners' native speech habits; hence such a grammar might describe differences between the two languages naturally.

As an example, I would like to consider the relative pronoun, which the Japanese language does not have, in the expressive grammar. Some of the grammar textbooks say that there are restrictive and continuative uses of relative pronouns, without giving the definition of the relative pronoun.⁵ Some textbooks give us the definition: "referring to an antecedent, introducing a subordinate clause qualifying an expressed or implied antecedent."⁶ "A relative pronoun relates or connects a clause to its antecedent."⁷ Perhaps these explanations may be of some limited help in understanding and in translation. However, an expressive-grammar, Mr. Miyauchi suggested, would serve better by telling why the Japanese

² Fumio Nakajima, "A Study of Grammar," *The Rising Generation*, Vol. 103 (1957), p. 99.

³ *Loc. cit.* Terminology may cause confusion here. I am using the terms new linguistics and structuralism synonymously in contrast to traditional grammar, a term which in turn I use more or less synonymously with scientific grammars, with their emphasis on historical and descriptive elements replacing the prescriptive emphasis of the earlier grammars. Representative of the best of the traditional grammars, are Sweet's Jespersen's, both mentioned above, and the later work of Margaret M. Bryant, *A Functional English Grammar* (Boston: D.C. Heath & Co., 1945), though these works have individual variations.

⁴ *Loc. cit.*

⁵ Kawai's *New English Grammar* is an example.

⁶ The definition is given in *New Webster's Collegiate Dictionary*.

⁷ Harry Show, *A Complete Course in Freshman English* (New York: Harper & Brothers Publication, 1951), p. 265.

language does not have the notion of the relative pronoun and why English has it.⁸

For the Japanese language, the relative pronoun is unnecessary. When a noun or pronoun, an uninflected word, follows a verb or an auxiliary verb in "Rentaikei" (participial adjective), the noun or pronoun can be a subject of the following clause. That is, we can say in Japanese, "Kino (yesterday) watakushi (I) ga, Kanda de (at Kanda) atta (meeting) hito (man) wa, watakushi no Oji (uncle) desu (be)." That is, "hito" (man), which is object of "atta" (met—meeting), becomes the subject of the following clause because of the function of the "rentai-kei", and "desu" (be) becomes a main verb in the sentence. In English, we cannot say "yesterday I at Kanda meeting a man my uncle is"; but "The man whom I met at Kanda yesterday is my uncle."

This explanation is not a sufficient explanation of the idea of the relative pronoun. The main point of difference between Japanese and English is that, in this case, the stream of thinking in Japanese always goes from left to right, whereas in English there are two directions of thinking with "whom" as center. As stated already, the modification is cumulative in English.

Miyauchi explained as the reason of this difference that Japanese thinking is rather near to feeling; thinking goes side by side with the concrete experience; English speaking people abstract from a concrete experience and reconstruct the idea through analysis and synthesis. In other words, the viewpoint of Japanese people moves according to the movement of the object, whereas the English people's viewpoint is fixed. Thinking or human activity is reflected in the language. That is, in the expression of a reconstructed idea, there is a certain fixed idea and other ideas are subordinated to this central one.

It is true that in listening to an English lecture or speech,

⁸ Hideo, Miyauchi. "A practice of English Expression," *The Rising Generation*, Vol. 96 (1950), p. 477.

Japanese people are often perplexed at the end of the long subordinate clause led by a relative pronoun, because it is hard for them to go back to the antecedent to arrange the idea expressed. They may fail to connect the subordinate clause to the principal clause, and then fail in getting the meaning as a whole; they may get just a fragment of a long sentence.

It is hard for Japanese to use the relative pronoun in expressing an idea using the relative pronoun until he gets enough training. Miyauchi gave us an interesting report. As an experiment, Miyauchi translated into Japanese the following passage from Lafcadio Hearn's *Living God*: "He was an old man at the time of the occurrence that made him famous." And he told college students who were not English majors to translate it into English. The typical answer were: "After he became old, this incident happened and he became famous."; "He became famous when this incident happened in his age," etc.⁹ Some of the students used the relative pronoun or relative adverb, but since their notion of the relative pronoun was not certain, their sentences were awkward and cranky. Especially, the first answer above shows that Japanese thinking is also diachronical—in chronological sequence.

In this respect, in teaching the relative pronoun, the explanation of the fixed viewpoint of English, in contrast to the moving viewpoint of Japanese, and of its form of continuity and of its direction, might help Japanese students. And training in how the speaker of English thinks is also necessary.

The way of thinking of Japanese-speaking people is surely different from that of English-speaking people, as already illustrated by the relative pronoun and "rentai-kei". How differences in the way of thinking are displayed in two different languages is an interesting and important question.

⁹ Miyauchi, *op. cit.*, p. 479.

As the structuralists point out, the favorite English pattern is "actor-action", but in the Japanese language, situations are not analyzed, as they are in English, in terms of an actor and action. Of course, the Japanese language has an expression like "a dog barks"; however, more often it is expressed in this way: "there is a dog's barking." I might say that English sentences are directive while Japanese sentences are predicative or descriptive.

In Japanese, a verb comes after an adverb and object; usually a verb, more often an auxiliary verb, comes at the end of the sentence. In a sense, therefore, people can guess or understand what the speaker wants to say before the sentence is ended with a verb or auxiliary verb. This means that in Japanese an adverb and object are more important than a verb.

In the following sentences, "Kare (he) wa, Umibe (along the shore) o achikochi (up and down, hither and thither) to aruita (walked)," and "Kanojo (she) wa, hasami de (with scissors) ito (thread) o kitta (cut)," the reader or hearer can guess what verb comes with the part of sentence "Umibe or achi-kochi to" and "hasami de ito o". Therefore, the verbs "aruita" (walked) and "kitta" (cut) are so unimportant that they can be omitted. However, in English expressions, "He walked up and down along the shore," and "She cut the thread with scissors," the verbs come before the adverb and object; the verbs are important. The adverb and object distribute and expand the meaning of the verb in English, whereas in Japanese the adverb and object determine the verb. Again, the English expression is dynamic; the action is the focus in the expression. In Japanese, the expression is static, and the scene or mood including action or movement is the main thing in expression; action itself is not focus.¹⁰

In order to express one's emotion, in Japanese usually the adjective and the adjectival verb are used, and the cause of the

¹⁰ Kochi Doi, *Nihon-go no Sugata* (A Feature of the Japanese Language) (Tokyo: Kaizo-sha, 1948), p. 145.

emotion becomes the subject with “ga”. In English, however, the cause of the emotion is the object; that is, person is the subject which is followed by a transitive verb.

e.g. Watakushi (I) wa, neko (cat) ga, kiraida (adjectival verb), or nikui (hateful)—“For me, cat is hateful.” English expression: “I hate, dislike, cats.”

Watakushi (I) wa tomodachi (friends) ga hoshii—“For me friends are desirable.” English expression: “I want friends.”

In English grammar, the object is defined as a “noun or noun equivalent denoting that on or toward which the action of a verb is directed, or that, in a prepositional phrase, to which the preposition bears the relation expressed.” In the sentence, “I fear dogs,” it seems to a Japanese that *I* rather than *dogs* is the word toward which the action of the verb is directed; that is, the sentence is close to “Dogs cause me fear,” though this would be more frequently expressed “Dogs are fearful for me” in Japanese. Again, in Japanese the adjective and the adverbial verb are used more often than the verb.

In “Watakushi (I) wa, ko no hon (this book) ga, omoshiroi (interesting),” *omoshiroi* implies feeling and at the same time it implies an attribute of the book. Some of the adjectives express subjective feeling, emotion, or sentiment, and some of them express an attribute of the object. These two natures are frequently equalized in the Japanese language. In brief, in Japanese, *glad* in “I am glad . . .” and *interesting* in “The book is interesting,” are not necessarily distinguished in nature. So one might find such a sentence as “I am interesting” instead of “I take interest in this book” or “The book is interesting” among the beginners’ compositions. As examples, we can compare the Japanese expression with English expression:

Urayamashii mibun	enviable position
Urayamashii renjū	envious people
Hazukashii kōi	shameful conduct
Hazukashii toshi goro	bashful, shy age

Thus, the same formal word in Japanese has different meanings in English.

In English the non-living thing is followed by the transitive verbs: "*Illness prevents me* from attending the meeting."; "*What has brought you* here?"; "*This train will take you* to Nikko without change." In Japanese, the non-living thing can be a subject, but it is never followed by a transitive verb. Also, I might say that a characteristic pattern of English expression is from the general to the particular: "*She is out in the garden.*": "*I caught him by the arm.*"; "*It is cool up at Karuizawa.*" The Japanese expression is from the particular to the general.

In the English language human beings are central, the nucleus of the expression; subjects are always clearly mentioned and frequently they are persons. Though the English speaker might state "What you say is right," "you are right" will do it. In English, "I can't follow you," "I could not make myself understood," or "Here you are!" are common expressions. The English also may say, "It is a good cooky," but "I like it" is perhaps the preferred expression. But Japanese people are not used to saying, "I...", "I...". And Japanese people have to make an effort to use *you* for just any second person whoever he may be—grandfather, mother, elder sister, younger brother, child, professor, or fellow. There is no honorific term in English, and there is no difference in *you*. For instance, German has two forms of address, the familiar (singular: *du*, plural: *ihr*) and the formal (singular and plural: *sie*). Generally, *du* and *ihr* are used only when speaking to close personal friends, relatives, children, or animals. *Sie* is generally used for formal relationships.¹¹ Likewise the Japanese language has many forms of address—"omae" (used for younger persons, or among boys), "kimi" (same as "omae" but more polite), "kisama", "anata" (women's

¹¹ Fred L. Fehling and Wolfgang Paulsen, *Elementary German* (New York: American Book Company, 1957), p. 14.

usage), etc. We use, for instance, "sensei" (teacher) for a teacher, professor, medical doctor, etc. instead of *you*. A Proper name is often used in conversations rather than pronoun *you*. Women's usage is often obviously distinct from men's usage. Further, in Japanese there is an auxiliary verb which indicates respect, "rareru" or "reru".

All the many significant differences between Japanese and English cannot be described here. What described above illustrates the point that the advice "Think in English" is sound, but it is useless to give this advice to beginners. When we read English, we understand unconsciously in Japanese. Thus proper understanding of English is extremely difficult. When we want to express our idea in English, we should make an effort to change our way of thinking to the way of English-speaking people's thinking. Of course the more we increase our English vocabulary and the more we are accustomed to English expression, the more easily we might think in English.

Also I wonder whether or not Japanese English educators have been active enough in examining the scholarship of western countries, and in introducing it to their fellows. Present English grammar books in Japan are based on English grammar written by English-speaking people or by other Europeans whose mother tongues are cognate to English. These books are therefore not appropriate for Japanese people whose mother tongue is completely different from English, in the system of language and in its sentence construction. Also it seems that the Japanese language is not so much referred to in teaching English, probably partly because of the concept that the comparison of uncognate languages is of no use.

Carroll commented: "Fries sets forth the outline of a procedure based upon the premise that, at least in the preparation of materials, a linguistic analysis of English and of the learner's native language must be made at the outset in order to show in exactly what respects the two languages are different, and

hence to indicate the kinds of things the student must unlearn and the kinds of novel habits he must acquire. This is clearly a sound approach.”¹²

Traditional English grammar has comparative weaknesses in its treatment of syntax and function words. Perhaps such weaknesses are less serious for native English-speaking people than for foreigners. As indicated by the above comparisons, syntactic differences are obstacles in learning a second language. In this respect, therefore, the emphasis of structuralists is of potential value for Japanese. The explanations of syntactic differences between the two languages might act as a means to break Japanese speech habits in order to have practical use of English.

Also we cannot neglect meaning in learning and teaching English. There is no speech without meaning—mere sounds are not speech. As a reflection of the human mind and its experiences, there are many common points among languages, but at the same time because of differences in culture, languages differ in many respects. The word *home* will be differently responded to by Japanese and English. Differences in meaning give us trouble in understanding a foreign language.

For instance, Japanese “*seigen*” or “*genkai*” corresponds to English *limit*. *Limit* implies that within a point in space, time, or the like, a person or thing can do or is permitted to go—*limit* has a permissive meaning. “*Seigen*” or “*genkai*”, however, is rather near to *restriction* which implies a boundary that encircles or encloses and often connotes a narrowing or tightening within those boundaries—they have prohibitive meaning. In other words, “*seigen*” or “*genkai*” has only this prohibitive meaning, but *limit* has a permissive meaning as well as prohibitive meaning. Thus it is possible to misunderstand *off-limit* as *without limit*, because of the notion of the Japanese word.

¹² John B. Carroll, *The Study of Language* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1955), p. 183. and cf. Fries, *The Structure of English*, pp. 279-280.

In order to avoid this sort of misunderstanding we have to depend upon the examples illustrated in dictionaries. But the examples given in present dictionaries are often for specialized uses.

Furthermore, in learning a second language, we have the problems of selection of a meaning among the given meanings in the dictionary. For instance, the dictionary gives us more than ten meanings of *order*. There are intimate relationships among these ten meanings. Hence, we need explanations of relationships among them which are not given in the ordinary dictionary. It is difficult to know how far and how much English-speaking people mentally respond to and experience with a word.

In order to give a scientifically accurate definition of meaning for every form in a language we would need a scientifically accurate knowledge of everything in the speaker's world.¹³ However, the actual extent of human knowledge is too small to know everything in the speaker's world. Hence, semantics cannot be described scientifically, yet it is an important linguistic field.

The fact of the difference of the meaning content in different languages shows that we cannot learn a foreign language by purely natural methods; the learning of a second language must depend upon the translation method, at least in the early period. And yet, since the meaning is not always identical in two languages, the translation method is not complete, either. Here is a considerable difficulty in learning.

It seems that almost all English-Japanese dictionaries were written for the purpose of the reading and of translation of English. They were based on the translation from *Webster, Standard* or *COD*. In other words, we imitated the dictionaries which were written for English-speaking people. The detailed

¹³ Leonard Bloomfield, *Language* (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1933), p. 139.

description of the content of the notion is unnecessary for speakers and does not help speakers directly. Rather we Japanese need clear understanding of English words, the explanation of psychological, habitual differences between synonyms, or, of differences of notion between the Japanese translated word and the original English word. We need to move away from the imitation or copying of English dictionaries for English-speaking people; we need to work toward a more satisfactory English dictionary for Japanese.

Chapter VI Conclusion

Is the aim of a second-language education "the command of a language"? If so, we would inquire what kind of command is sought. Is the emphasis on a speaking knowledge, and if so, is it a knowledge simply sufficient to get along in a foreign country as a tourist, or is it a type of knowledge which would enable the speaker to pass as a native? Perhaps it is ideal that one become able to speak a foreign language like a native; however, the ideal is almost impossible of attainment. If it is sufficient to get along in a foreign country as a tourist, school education might be unnecessary. The street girls can communicate with American soldiers in broken English. Those who can speak English quite well cannot always read scholarly, highly intellectual English, though naturally speaking ability must be parallel with understanding and reading ability. Also those who study English by the grammar-translation method and have sound basic knowledge of English cannot speak English well; however, when they are accustomed to spoken English, they come to speak English well and they may even participate in intellectual discussions. Needless to say, however, there are always personal differences.

Considering these facts, I would like to ask if Japanese English education has not been effective at all, and whether the method

of teaching English was wrong or not. It is true that almost all educated Japanese people have some knowledge of English besides knowledge of their specialized fields, and can read English quite well. I would say that the aim of Japanese English education has been appropriate and that Japanese English education has discharged its task quite well, though it can stand improvement. However, to emphasize only the understanding or the skill of translating a foreign language into Japanese is one-sided education of language. As well as the hearer's side, the speaker's side must be taught. Then the problem is how to lead students to the goal of the practical use of English.

As stated above, Fries' oral approach, even the eclectic direct method, and the method of working with an informant are too ideal for the Japanese educational situation. Only a few privileged schools may adopt these methods.

Students' age, intelligence, aptitude for language, motivation, and prior experience with language (including his own) must be considered in relation to the purpose and methods of instruction.¹ The situation of a classroom in Japan is far from the ideal situation in which effective language instruction might be given. Generally a class in public junior or senior high school, especially, consists of various students with differences in intelligence and motivation. No matter whether or not a student has interest in, or aptitude for, English, he has to study it at school. Considering these aspects, I would conclude that Japanese English education is largely dependent upon the political, social and economic situation.

What is needed is more precise research and knowledge of the conditions under which the various methods succeed, and an attempt to take the good points of various methods which might be applicable for our situation. As John B. Carroll, Associate Professor of Education at Harvard University, suggested, what is

¹ Carroll, *op. cit.*, p. 170.

needed now is a series of small-scale, carefully controlled educational experiments, in which some of the best minds in linguistics, foreign-language teaching psychology, education, experimental design, and measurement would be brought to bear on the problem.²

Needless to say, we need to reconsider the content of the entrance examination and try to improve it for English education as a whole.

Again, I would like to consider the emphasis upon spoken language. Obviously spoken language must be considered in teaching English as a foreign language. The structuralists' assumption is that the study of language should emphasize the oral rather than the written form. Their argument runs as follows. Language in the beginning was entirely oral. Writing, however, is new, being traceable only to five or six thousand years ago, if we exclude the earliest pictures from the category. It seems sensible to concentrate upon spoken language because it has had much greater opportunity to develop. Children learn to speak before they learn to write. Although almost every human being can speak, many millions cannot write at all. In the total life of human race, only a tiny percentage of human beings have ever learned to write. Almost every human being each day speaks many more words than he writes. Recordings can be made of the way that people actually speak. In short, speech is basic in human life and writing is a reflection of speech.

It is true that the written form is a highly limited and conventionalized segment of the language. On the other hand, however, there are reasons to oppose this point of view. Although speech is older than writing, the more recently developed mode of communication is generally less transitory. We can no longer hear Plato's voice, but we can still read *The Dialogues* because Plato took the trouble to set them down in writing. Although

² *Ibid.*, p. 187.

children do speak before they write, they also crawl before they walk. Writing is a more mature activity than speaking. The quantitative arguments that more persons speak than write and that almost every one speaks oftener than he writes may both be countered by qualitative arguments. Furthermore, writing is potentially superior to speech as a medium of communication. The study of the language used by able writers may reveal to others how they themselves may employ the languages to communicate most effectively. "Even though the spoken language is taken as a norm for description, it is a childish simplification on the part of the structuralist to neglect the influence of the written tradition."³

"The entire question of stylistics is vitally affected by the inter-play of the written tradition and the spoken tongue. Although structuralists have notoriously neglected the field of stylistics, it is an integral part of a cultural language."⁴ I would like to say that both spoken and written language need long and careful study. Almost complete exclusion of the study of writing seems unwise.

Furthermore, since we are not living in an English-speaking community, and only a few have contact with English-speaking people, the spoken language cannot be emphasized in Japanese English instruction as the structuralists insist; for the most part, the grammar-translation method must discharge the task of language instruction. Hence, the textbooks are an important factor. The grammar of the structuralists has contributed to recognition of the inadequacy of current grammatical definitions based on meaning, and to recognition of the fact that traditional grammar, concerned chiefly with morphology, has inadequately treated the two other chief principles of English grammar, syntax

³Gordon M. Messing, "Structuralism and Literary Tradition," *Language*, Vol. 27 (1951), p. 6.

⁴*Ibid.*

and function words. Structuralism emphasizes the latter two principles; it deals with words as functioning units, not with each word separately morphologically; it emphasizes that the crucial problem in understanding how a language works is to grasp the structure of that language. Thus, structuralism might point the way toward teaching the structural basis of English more clearly than the current school grammars. However, as indicated above, the grammar of the structuralists is not complete. To investigate only the formal structure of language is one-sided study. Meaning cannot be ignored in the study of language. Whatmough, a widely known linguist, who is head of the Department of Linguistics and Professor of Comparative Philology at Harvard, significantly remarks:

It is not possible for linguists to hand over phonetics to physics, and meaning to sociology, as some have proposed, without making structural linguistics utterly sterile, a risk of which this subject is already in great danger. A linguist's description of a language is of little help in learning the language.⁵

Thus, linguistic analysis is not a method of instruction; linguistic analysis merely has something to say about what is to be taught. It is desirable that some of the results of English language research be adopted in school grammars. But the adoption must be done in consideration of the aim of the school grammar. At present, though many Japanese English scholars and teachers are paying attention to structuralism, no grammar textbook based on structuralism has appeared in Japan. By going back to scientific grammars,⁶ we might find more helpful treatment of language features. Especially Jespersen's theory of "Stages of Familiarity" and his explanations are worth being adopted in the textbook, at least for the advanced course (college freshman level).

Further, we must make an effort to arrange teaching materials

⁵ Joshua Whatmough, *Language: A Modern Synthesis* (New York: The New American Library, A Mentor Book, 1956), p. 135.

⁶ See footnote, p. 51.

carefully. As Fries has suggested, we need, at least in the preparation of materials, a linguistic analysis of English and of Japanese in order to show in exactly what respects the two languages are different, and hence to indicate the kinds of things the student must unlearn and the kinds of novel habits he must acquire. As indicated above, there are many aspects which must be considered in teaching and learning English with regard to Japanese speech habits. Since we Japanese, including seventh grade pupils, have fixed speech habits, we cannot learn a second language with the natural method. If the differences between the two languages are explained, such an explanation might show students the path of learning the second language; it might aid us greatly in breaking Japanese speech habits in order to have practical use of English. Carroll also has suggested as one of the major forward-looking tasks of present-day American linguistics:

Extension of the borders of linguistics to include such problems as linguistic psychology and the discovery of relation between linguistics systems and culture patterns. Special attention needs to be given to the role of linguistic systems in habitual patterns of thought.⁷

Needless to say, the sound description of structural patterns of language is a basic matter.

In summary, then, a structural-descriptive grammar of Japanese is needed which would, while largely retaining the traditional treatment of *Morphology*, utilize some of the material of scientific grammar, as well as the approach of the new linguistics in emphasizing *syntax* and *function words*. It would be advisable also that it contain an explanation of specific structural differences between Japanese and English. As Sapir remarked, "All grammars leak"⁸; but such a grammar would be of much help for the Japanese, with their peculiar problems in learning English.

⁷ Carroll, *op. cit.*, p. 67.

⁸ Edward Sapir, *Language: An Introduction to the Study of Speech* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, A Harvest Book, 1921), p. 38. Also see Laird, *The Miracle of Language* (New York: Fawcett World Library, A Premier Book, 1957) p. 172.

Also, English learners ought to know in what context, in what situation, a word has a certain meaning. In other words, students need to know the inner as well as the outer relationship of words. We therefore need, as exemplified earlier, to work toward the development of a satisfactory English dictionary for Japanese, a dictionary which would not be an imitation or copy of English dictionaries for English-speaking people.

The problem of "levels of usage" must be discussed in connection with Japanese English instruction. The new linguists' attitude toward language leads to the recognition of levels of usage rather than a single standard; this attitude causes much confusion. Scholars' opinions do not agree in the classification of levels. Only a few examples will be given. S. A. Leonard and H. Y. Moffatt in "Current Definition of Levels in English Usage" (*English Journal*, XVI, May, 1927, pp. 345-359), arrived at three levels: Literary, Colloquial, and Illiterate. Robert C. Pooley sets five levels: 1) Illiterate; 2) Homely; 3) Standard English, Informal; 4) Standard English, formal; and 5) Literary.⁹ The first two are cultural levels, and the last three are functional varieties of a third cultural level, Standard English. Hook and Mathews divided levels into seven: 1) Linguistic paupers; 2) Unschooling linguistic colorists; 3) Semi-schooled self-satisfied; 4) Linguistic aspirants; 5) Linguistic purists; 6) Linguistic self-adjusters; and 7) Schooled linguistic colorists.¹⁰ L.M. Myers indicated the relations of standard to several other kinds of usage by the following diagram. (None of the lines is solid).¹¹ As John

⁹ Robert C. Pooley, *Teaching English Usage* (1946), quoted by Jarry Warfel, *Who Killed Grammar?* (Gainesville: University of Florida Press, 1952), p. 13.

¹⁰ J.N. Hook and E.G. Mathews, *op. cit.*, op. 41-46.

¹¹ L. M. Myers *op. cit.*, p. 33. Myers' opinion is that the difference between formal and informal English is a matter of style and attitude rather than of level. The term "shop talk" covers a large number of specialized sets of usages in which various groups talk about matters of particular concern to themselves. The range from the technical jargon of scholars and scientists to the cant of hobos and criminals.

S. Kenyon pointed out, it is necessary to distinguish between cultural levels of English and functional varieties of Standard English.¹²

	STANDARD		
shop talk	formal	informal	slang
	POPULAR		
		dialects	

Again, Fries himself in *American English Grammar* divided usages into three cultural levels: Vulgar, Common and Standard. At the end of that book he advocated the teaching of standard English: "that which is actually used in conducting the major affairs of our country, and not with grammatical usages that have no validity outside the English classroom."¹³ Since he repeatedly tried to show that the Vulgar and Standard varieties of American English are identical, how can anyone be expected to know what Fries really means? Moreover, Fries does not deal with literary English and the refined colloquial usages in his book. We cannot know what Fries means by informal Standard English, which, he insists, must be taught at school. Or may we think that when Fries named Group I usages "Standard English", he regarded these usages in the same light as Standard English, the particular type of English which is used in the conduct of the important affairs of people? The materials that Fries examined are certain files of informal correspondence in the possession of the United States Government. He concocted "Standard English" (Group I) from 3,000 letters on a single theme addressed by distressed persons to the War Department some time after World War I, not from the state and national documents, nor from the Govern-

¹² Cf. John S. Kenyon, "Cultural Levels and Functional Varieties of English," *College English*, Vol. 10 (Oct., 1948), pp. 31-36.

¹³ Fries, *American English Grammar*, p. 287.

ment's answering letters. I think it is highly questionable to respect all of Fries' Group I usages as Standard English.

Fries also stated in *Teaching and learning English as a Foreign Language*, "In learning English one must attempt to imitate exactly the forms, the structures, and the mode of utterance of the native speakers of the particular kind of English he wishes to learn."¹⁴ What does Fries mean by "the particular kind of English"? Can we choose the "particular kind of English" at random?¹⁵

It should be evident that the teaching of language is not identical with a research investigation of language. If a smooth path exists, it is not sinful to show it to the pupils. It is desirable for Japanese to be taught "standard English"; especially because they are not living in an English-speaking community, hardly observe the facts of spoken English, and must use English in conducting "international" affairs.

Considering the situation of Japanese English education, I think it is wise to study "formal" Standard English—not colloquial informal spoken English, but formal, even literary written English—for teaching English to meet the needs of the majority of the pupils and students. This is the English of disciplined thought, a type of English which, without major changes, has been used in most of the important English writing for several centuries; and which is actually used today in conducting the major affairs of English-speaking countries.

In conclusion, I would like to say that it is a joy of language teachers that through studying English, a student may develop a keen awareness of language, an organic living thing, whether

¹⁴Fries, *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language*, p. 5.

¹⁵It was reported by Mr. Hoshiyama that at the UNESCO Seminar of Language Education, Fries answered the question of Standard English pronunciation, "I should like to choose B.B.C. announcers' pronunciation." I think this answer is interesting—Saburo Hoshiyama, "Dr. Fries and Queen's English," *The Rising Generation*, Vol. 103 (August, 1957), p. 407.

or not he learn to speak English. To many a student, a more extensive treatment of linguistic science and related studies would be of undoubted interest, as well as a significant contribution to his general education. A virtue of education in English, in particular, is that a student may touch the western, English-speaking people's culture which has many elements different from our own.

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