ANALYTICAL SYNTAX FOR TEACHING ENGLISH (1)

— a non-native approach —

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Introduction :

Non-native language to a normal mentality is, above all, an intellectual incident. Willy-nilly one encounters it, and he may very well evade it or perhaps he could overcome it either by subjugating it or, ironically, by 'naturalizing' himself into it, and still yet, he will find himself so much the worse off thereafter.

Acquisition of a non-native language is basically an extraneous feat for any mental mechanism that is sufficient and consistent of itself. Human intelligence so far renderable in the inevitable and exclusive native free language is there forced to accomodate itself to a new regime where it has to coexist with another system of mental recourse, redundant, incongruous and not without occasional 'violence.'

The mode of compatibility of the two systems thus brought into contact or into conflict may be diverse and yet the most crutial is the intellectual implication of the state of affairs involved. In a native language, all the intellectually articulate elements and operations are definable only in terms of that very language, while in the imposed bilingual continuum such are to be correlated across the systems, i. e., the two systems have to be somehow made intellectually commensurable.

Thus, whatever the purpose, in the teaching of a non-native language, the most essential is how to present the learner the language as a finite system of idiation and moreover how to present it at every stage along the course of acquisition toward the ultimate approximation of native competence.

In the present article* we intend to propose an arbitrary 'analytical syntax'** of what is actually an 'approximation' of a language called English. It is arbitrary in the sense that it might defy the native speakers' instinct and taste. All the other phases of language at work are relegated from the description and prescription in

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the interest of the purely formal-mental properties of the language in question.

The main body of the present article is an analysis of English sentences in a simulation, or in our term, the 'syllabication' of given sentences into a few kinds of constituent syllables, as we analyze an equation into factors.

The characteristics of these factors and their internal formation will be outlined in an order which implicitly sets forth the stages and progress of the teaching.

The non-native language teaching has been too long administered in an analogy with that of the native language, and much too often with that of the natives of the language in question. In the discussion that follows special attention is paid as to how best to present the language to normal non-native learners as an intellectually consistent and comprehendable structure and at the same time as a set of formula mentally operatable with desired degrees of skill and freedom.   Teaching by rote is not the royal way when the art is something that has to be taught, for whatever reason, in spite of the self-sufficient native language.

Chapter I   Basic Syllabication

1. 1   Embryo Sentences :

We should like to begin with a brief reflection on the so-called 'interjections' and their incidences usually classified as 'exclamation.'   When a person, under a certain type of stress and circumstance, is driven to utter some such 'interjections,' as say, for example, /oh/, or /ah/, it is usually understood that the utterance had so much to say and has said it, (which would be transcribed "Oh!" or "Ah!" as the case may be).   Otherwise, the speaker could have said something longer, something else, or perhaps could have saide nothing at all.   For that matter, a whistle or a gesture could have performed the same function.   However, we could say that /oh/, /ah/, etc., are more phonetic, and that, unlike the barking of a dog, these could be conscious and selective on the part of the subject.   He may have anticipated someone listening, but this condition could have been otherwise as well.

Like an embryo, these short utterances are each a whole and self-sufficient for what is intended by them.   An embryo sentence is a single unit of act or its equivalent. Its internal parts and the structure may or may not be discernible.   It may have semantic and grammatical parts and organization, but its total function is yet quite independent of such components.   If one still feels in the interjection /bye/ or /good-bye/ the sentence 'God abide thee!', and in /please/ 'If it pleases you, kindly do me the favor of...', or in /thank-you/ 'I thank you!', the loss or lack of the essential parts leaves the expression quite short of being self-explanatory.

The reason why we have begun our grammar with affairs of such sub-language

order is not so much that we wish to draw a linguistic analogy of onto- and phylo-
genesis as that we wish to begin our analysis with the smallest of the wholes, and
perhaps with those that are more or less universal i. e., not limited to English.

We cannot tell if such items as /oh/ and /ah/ are vocabulary items particulaly of
English even though they are listed there as such and under the grammatical group-
ing called 'interjections.' We are reminded of the fact that each language has its
own version of such physical acts accompanying vocal phenomena as sneezing,, and
that individuals in some way conform to it.   It is also interesting to look into a
dictionary, for an instance *Roget's International Thesaurus*, for a collection of
English interjections. We find there varieties of interjections under diverse entries,
each defining the circumstances and motivations, e. g., "surprise", "approval", "disgust",
etc. We also find that there is an entire spectrum of interjections from such single,
universal species as /oh/ and /ah/ to structured complexes particularly English, such
as /for-goodness'-sake/, or /it's-all-one-to-me/, etc.

The situation being what it is, what we could do and propose in this region of
language (not only for English) is perhaps to arrange such vocabulary items over a
spectrum in terms of their degree of semantic and grammaitcal complexity. Certainly
we could place at an extremity of simplicity, /oh/ and /ah/, ones almost spontaneous
and universal, then /poof/, /pshaw/, etc., quite English, then /boy/ or /god/ in which
we see semantic overtones strictly English, then /well/, /yes/, etc., ones derived from
adverbs with not only semantic but also grammatical involvement carried over. Then
we have a multitude of /look/, /halt/ or /come-on/, /take-it-easy/, etc., where im-
perative use of verbs is dicernible as the basis of the exclamational impetus. Finally
we may have such clause-derived varieties as /would-that/, /why-not/ or even /it-
could'nt-be-worse/, etc., of which /say/ or /thank-you/ may be the most mellow and
typical, thus ending the other extremity of the spectrum.

Now, on the other hand, we could arrange the interjections by headings, each
indicating circumstance-reaction combinations such as those already mentioned above,
but with further details, e. g., under 'greetings,' we could classify "greetings in the
the morning," "greetings in the afternoon," etc., "for the first time, after long absence,"
or "upon the leaves-taking," etc., and each will begin with such general types as
/hello/ or /hi/, to end in whatever complex expressions one may wish, as long as
they abide within the conventionalized phraseology considered as 'interjections' indiffer-
ent to their internal formation and elements.

For teaching of such paradigms of interjections, there will not be much difficulty.
What is essential in this is not that we should teach the so-called semantic meaning,
or mother-tongue equivalent, but that we give the subject enough practice in selecting
the right kind of interjections at right circumstances with fit vocal performance (and

perhaps a facial or bodily gesture naturally accompanying), and to condition him to perceive and react to those utterances selectively and spontaneously.

It is also important to remember that we are here talking about the particular vocabulary items that are in themselves 'interjections,' that is to say, they are conventionalized items for respective exclamatory situations, and that we are not dealing with individual happenings where other types of sentences or fractions of sentences are uttered under exclamatory charges.   The so-called one-word-sentences are of a grouping quite confusing as the term contains both the conventionalized vocabulary items for exclamation and the actual incidences of fragments of what could otherwise have been a full sentence curtailed under the pressure of the circumstance for each particular case.   This may still be a venture in beginning to teach English, but we find no reason why we should not start teaching it, or learning it, with such embryo-like species where the natural bond between the expression and the motivation is strong, and not administer enough experience in the use of these sublinguistic activities with much more spontaniety and feeling.

1. 2 Complete Verbs :

One of the revealing features of English is that imperative sentences are there formed around the verbs in radical.   Unlike the exclamatory utterances—whether spontaneous or stylized—which do not always presuppose the listener, or the receiver of the message, imperative utterances are the verbal substitution for signaling something to be done by the second person addressed to; and the fact that in English, the verbs in radical are the grammatical form for expressing such intent on the part of the speaker to the receiver of the speech is quite symbolic.

Some frequent uses of verbs in the imperative are so much generalized that they have become themselves stylized interjections quite indifferent to the internal structure and elements they are composed of or quite forgetful of the internal semantic meaning and syntactical organization.   These prove the close psychological continuation between imperative and exclamatory motivations.   They are, for example, "Listen!", "Look!", "Hear!", "Come!" etc., when their literal meaning is un-invoked as often is the case.

In the following sections we are going to classify the so-called sentence patterns in their imperative forms, that is to say, "sentences minus their subjects", their predicate verbs always in root form.   One of the reasons for this is of course for less involvement at the beginning, but a better reason is that as a program for teaching English, the process thus beginning with the most basic of the uses, in respect to the language as human behavior, may be the most natural and efficient.

If the words /go/ and /stop/ were to be considered as signals, their contrast and difference, sufficient in themselves for different results, are in their phonetic or orthographic characteristics comparable to the colour difference between green and orange

in traffic signals. It is only when these two terms are placed in the entire context of the linguistic convention of English that these two pieces of vocabulary become items of the secondary system of signals. In short, in such most elementary use of language as materialized in "Go!" and "Stop!" the words are found operating on the two levels of the signaling scheme.

We will relegate for a while our discussion on the static symbolization involved in language, that is to say, the entire realm of elements and structure of linguistic symbols we have created and operate daily for understanding, describing and communicating, in reference to the world and ourselves as we understand them. And yet, even the simplest of elements and struture as "Go!" or "Come!" do partake of such faculty called 'idiation.'

Thus the first type of imperative sentences we are to introduce is the most self-sufficient and explicit of all the imperatives, those with verb, complete and intransitive. As the use of language, this is perhaps the most basic, according to the most immediate sense of language as a tool.

In such an imperative utterance as "Go!" we find the primary combination of form and meaning, or grammar and vocabulary, or lexcical and syntaxical features. Grammatically it is contrasted against all the other forms and derivatives of vocabulary items entered in the dictionary under the heading "go", and as a vocabulary item it is distinguished from all other items even from such close ones as "Stop!" or "Come!".

We think this type of sentence constitutes the first sentence pattern to be learned and taught. To learn and to teach at this level does not mean to understand the lexical meaning of the words and to become able to classify these utterances as signifying the speaker's demand, or to be able to translate them into their equivalent in the native tongue.   The subject must be conditioned to react first of all physically and then mentally to these words and they must simultaneously induced to utter these words under the proper situation.

Recognition of the lexical meaning of the vocabulary item involved and recognition of the grammatical form (in imperatives this is zero, thus we could relegate the difficulty of the argument in regards to whether 's' of the third person singular or 'ed' of the past, etc., are grammatical or semantic, etc.) must fuse themselves to result in the complete comprehension of the piece of speech thus uttered to a subject. This is an experience on the behaviorial level of language. The practice at this level is essential because even if it is a foreign language, English has to be taught as linguistic behavior rather than as knowledge or formulation of it.   Practice of this sort must be, as a matter of necessity, taught at an earlier stage of mental development when the subjects' life is centered on the physical activities.   Children may enjoy reacting to such commands as "Go!", "Stop!", "Run!", "Jump!" etc., where no literal trans-

lation tends to interfere. Transfer of auditory stimulus into kinetic response will also reinforce the total comprehension and fixation of the symbolic formulae, which in return provokes spontaneous voiced production of such commands upon proper stimulus.

A further suggestion is that those verbs administered at earlier stages must be un-equivocal in their meaning and uses, avoiding for instance, such verbs as /look/, /think/, /speak/ etc., which suggest not exactly grammatical but psychological 'objects' later supplied by adverbial elements. One of the reasons why we avoid teaching indicative sentences as "I am a boy." etc., is to eliminate all the interferences that come between real behaviorial comprehension and the stimulus and to enable the teacher to trace and monitor the reaction of the subject without recourse to indirect clues such as writing or translation as long as he sticks to this process of starting with the imperatives in complete intransitive verb formations.

The second step in this sequence will be the suffixation of simple adverbs, mostly direction-giving specifications such as /up/, /down/, /in/, /out/, /away/, /round/, etc. The collocation is often fixed as "stand-up." The degree of fixation is indicated in the way the suffixed adverbial element receives the stress. Such combinations as /stand-up/, /look-out/, etc., are uttered as if they are one word and the stress is shifted to the suffixed part. In such fixed case as /stand-up/, we may present them as if they were a unit of verb without bringing up the contrast with /stand/, /stand-out/, etc., but gradually the internal structure must be made conscious to the subject. It is important to notice that this collocation is the first case where positively a grammatical element is introduced. The very fact that two elements are participating and that the adverb is to follow the verb it modifies, and that the combination is not an adverb but a verb is so much defined.

It is important that in this collocation we are introducing thus an idea of attribution or modification, an operation where a verb is further defined by an adverb suffixed, whose product is equivalent to a verb-unit. In a combination /come-in/, the suffxed /in/ is considered as something within the verb /come/ even though on the surface it is externaly suffixed. If we feel in /come/ plus /in/ another word /enter/, when we ask somebody to come in, the situation may be a little more convincing. This is further established in the case of /stand-up/ where /up/ is almost indispensable; it is there no longer an additional detail but an essential denominator of the action invoked. One of the striking features of such a combination is that when further contraction is required, it is the verb that is to undergo suppression, thus "Up!" instead of "Wake-up!" or "Stand-up!", and "Out!" instead of "Go-out!" or "Get-out!".

For our convenience perhaps we might use a formula for this, thus: v $\overleftarrow{\times}$ adv.$=$V, in which the vector of modification is indicated by the arrow, and the V in capital indicating that it is in predicate use.

Incidentally the sequence of adverbs following the verbs they modify is entirely opposite to the Japanese habit; hence a great source, conscious or unconscious, of difficulty.   The sequence moreover is almost inviolable in English and this feature distinguishes this group of adverbs, or this use of adverbs (attributive) from other uses of adverbs and equivalents; thus at this stage we will refrain from presenting to our youngs such uses as "Come here!" "Come again!" etc., in way of contrast with "Come-in!".

There will be, however, a problem as to whether such combinations should be taught as one coalgated verb or a combination of two distinct elements, and for that matter, pedagogically speaking, we are convinced that analysis and synthesis should go hand in hand in teaching and learning.   If the teaching climate is natural and spontaneous, the comprehension of the combination as one whole does not preclude the awareness of its members and the structure.   Thus /come-in/ is contrasted in two-folds, one with /come-out/ the other with /go-in/, and diagonally with /go-out/. Analysis and synthesis of this order is, for a child of ordinary mentality, not too much, and exercise of this sort is far more important than to give them substitutes in the mother tongue. (Remember, that we have not introduced predicative uses of adverbs yet, and that is the reason why it has been proposed in the previous paragraph not to contrast "Come-in!" with "Come again!"; the contrast there is of a higher level, not at the level now under study.)

We think that memorizing two parallel systems of elements and structure, one native and the other foreign, and to memorize the correlation existing (if existing) between the two is certainly too hard even for the mentality of an extremely gifted child, and from such knowledge no spontaneous comprehension and production will be expected.

At any rate we will administer, as for this theme, first the ones where such modification is almost an agglutinazation, then selective collocations, and leave the way open to the predicative uses of verbs which will be discussed at a certain later stage.

1. 3 Accusative Verbs :

Instead of going into the so-called incomplete intransitive verb formations, we will take up transitive verb formations, beginning with the most typical; thus the formation transitive verb plus direct object, then transitive verb and double objects.   We will relegate the transitive verb plus object plus complement formation to later chapters for certain reasons.

Psychologically speaking, the transitiveness of the verb may be easier to demonstrate, as we do here, in the imperative situation than in indicative situations.   Symbolically, one could show a piece of meat to a dog, and with the slightest of indication given he may attack it.   The action is almost secondary to the object in sight.   Without

presentation of the object, the action will not be provoked. Even though this formula contains an additional second term if compared to the last formula of independent verb formation, the presence of the second term in the verbal expression is quite in analogy with the reality. The order of the two terms may be theoretically arbitrary, but it conforms to the general rule "Verb first for all the imperatives," hence necessary as the terms may be, the object is placed after the verb in English, at least.

As a matter of necessity the second term, the object, is noun (including pronouns) or its equivalent, but it is always either first person or third person, and in a sophisticated way, from time to time, the second person himself appears in reflective situations. Formal involvement in this formula sets in when pronouns are used for indicating the object, but it is again limited.

Again, instead of defining what the noun-ness of nouns or noun-equivalents, the group of vocabulary pieces that can be employed for the object of this formula, in analogy with the reality it represents is, we might as well begin simply with the pronouns, pronouns in their objective forms. This will be simpler because we have not yet taught our subjects the "indicative form" or "subjective form" of the pronouns. There are many reasons why native children learn "me", "him", "her", "them" before they learn "I", "he", etc., and we need not feel any qualm in teaching the objective forms of pronouns before the subjective forms, and pronouns before proper nouns, and proper nouns before ordinary nouns, as the latter most usually involve articles, number indications, etc.

Thus we will introduce such imperative expressions as "Hit me!", "Push me!", "Kick him!", "Catch her!", or "Call Mary!" etc.

These imperative sentences are uttered as if they were one word, and as a matter of fact they are often contracted when the latter term is in pronoun form, and unlike the case of "Stand-up!" as quoted in the preceding chapter, the accent is always on the verb, not on the object, thus "Kick him!" will be contracted into "Kick'im", and under further obvious cases, it could be shortened to simply saying "Kick!", that is to say, when what is to be kicked is obvious or indifferent to the parties concerned.

Such phonetic characterization of this combination is also a proof that this formula is thoroughly different in its nature from other verb noun combinations as "Be a hero!" where stress tends to fall on the so-called complement, the second term.

It is also important to distinguish the modes of juxtaposition between the two terms involved in the "Stand-up!" formula and this "Kick him!" formula, which are not only distinguished by their accent slopes. We could use the mathematical symbol + instead of × to express this sort of grammtical relationship. In the Kick-him combination it is the mentality that spans the two distinct terms while in the Stand-up combination it is the mental fusion of the terms. The second term of the first combi-

nation could suggest a synonym in a single word while the second combination refuses such an equivalent, that is to say, the juxtaposition has to be formed for each utterance by the speaker.   The Kick-me formation is mentally articulated in the sense that there is a formal and semantic segmentation and juxtaposition conscious and selective for each utterance.   It refers to a situation where object (implicit or explicit) is present, where the act demanded presupposes a situational object each of of which is separately represented in the verbal elements and structure.   We will name the formula thus defined as a sentence consisting of two *syllables*, in analogy to that of phonetics.
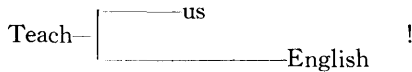
Before we go into the next item, the transitive verbs taking two objects, we may bring in what we have done with the complete verbs, i. e., the "Stand-up" formation, especaially the suffixed adverbs.   The direction-giving adverbial elements that suffixed themselves to the complete verbs can also be attached to the transitive verbs, thus we have "Take-in something!" or "Take something-in!"   It is always the second alternative when the object is in the pronoun form.   It goes without saying that this combination of verb plus adverb constitutes a single syllable, not two, whether -in is annexed to the verb or split and placed across the object.   English is very much unstable in this as the tension between the verb and its object (especially in pronoun) and the tension between the verb and its modifier are in constant competition against each other.   For pedagogical purposes, the simplest samples may be administered to our subjects, say ones with objects in pronouns, so that this rhythm of "Verb-object-something else," fixed at this early date, will pave the way to the variety of uses of objective complements later on.   As far as the present item is concerned, it has to be handled with not too much stress so that it will not impress the pupils as one of the cardinal sentence patterns.   The postposed adverb may be taught as a split-verb displaced across the object, but is a part of the verb, and that the sentence consists in two syllables, verb and noun, or, predicate and object.

1. 4   Transitive Verbs :

The imperative sentences with transitive verbs that take so-called double objects, direct and indirect, constitute another sentence pattern in English.   If compared to the previous formula, accusative verb plus object, it has an additional term, or another syllable in noun or noun equivalent.   The pattern thus comprises of the verb and two noun syllables.   Of the two objects, ironically, it is not the so-called direct object that is placed immediately after the verb, but the indirect object.   Perhaps the indirect object is an inserted element from the formal point of view, but psychologically closer to the verb.

At any rate, we could explain to our pupils and say, for instance, "Teach me English!" is a combination of saying two accusative sentences: "Teach English (to

somebody)!" and "Teach me (in the art of English language)!" There is a difference, obvious even to children, in the meaning of the verb 'teach' of these two uses: We do not 'teach' *English* as we do *our pupils*. We could say that there are such verbs that ancitipate double objects because of the particular nature of action indicated, one is the thing transported and the other that which receives it, and that such relationship is expressed not by additional words or indications, but by their order of appearance in the sentence. Perhaps we could diagram the situation as:

$$\text{Teach} - \left| \begin{array}{l} \rule[0.5ex]{2em}{0.4pt}\text{us} \\ \rule[0.5ex]{6em}{0.4pt}\text{English} \end{array} \right. \qquad !$$

Thus we could avoid the difficulty in determining which of the two objects are equivalent to the object of the accusative verb formation. It is fortunate that the dative object in English is usually replaceable by a prepositional phrase that contains the same word, which fact establishes the adverb-ness of the dative object, or the indirect-ness of the indirect object, while with the direct object, the replacement is not immediately possible. However, as we have not so far introduced the predicative uses of adverbs and their equivalents, this argument cannot be used to explain the difference. Another drawback is that transitive verbs often appear without being accompanied by the indirect object. There is also an unfortunate parallel of this formula with such accusative verbs as 'to rob' which forms a pattern "Rob him of something!", or 'to shake' forming "Shake him in the hand!" where the adverbial phrases cannot be converted back into indirect objects: these verbs are not *transitive* verbs (verbs taking two objects, in our terminology).

Another point is, as we have mentioned in the beginning of the section, that the problem of real word order is met with, for the first time, in this form. It goes without saying that the verb, in imperative, goes first of all the elements in English as is well established even in our discussion so far, and that this is in striking contrast to the Japanese sentence structure; but the relative meaning carried by the sequence of the two positions in a series to be occupied by the same type of speech element (noun and its equivalents, in this case) is really a new experience for the Japanese learners, even beyond the psychological dilemma of indirect object immediately following the verb.

It is also important to remenber that the relational ideas are all explicitely marked by the post-posed particles in Japanese, and the order of the syllables does not count, expect as a matter of style. It is therefore best to condition the learners at this level to this thoroughly new type of syntax in its most typical and striking examples with the least of the elements involved, and to prescribe the most concrete of the mental and even physical activities involved in the practice so that the regime of actuality

and that of language may be united at the most basic level of experience. Verbal translation will only offset such habits.

It is also noted that the feeding back of the additional information to the already stated element is quite a new phenomenon involved in this formula. The addition of the third term (direct object) redefines the already stated first term (verb). The meaning of "Teach!" is not fully realized until "me" and "English" is stated, thus we have said such verbs do anticipate two objects even though the latter may not always be forthcoming. This is a mental phenomena taking place in the formal aspect of the language, i. e., affairs in the secondary system of signals, or a matter of the linguistic system within itself not projected back into the parallel in actuality. "Teach English!" could be concrete enough to be responded upon no less than "Teach me!", but in the latter sequence another kind of information is anticipated, or it is open for another element that constitutes the situation, and when it is supplied, the meaning of the initial verb 'teach' is redefined as to accomodate the double object.

We, however, think this is still in the realm of reality and symbolically speaking, if these two terms were in sight, a dog can comprehend such a command: it may be ordered to take something to somebody. The situation thus involves two terms and the action; all of the three elements are represented in the verbal formula without grammatical auxiliaries. It is the order in the formal aspect of speech that is purely 'intellectual', hence the proposed prescription for teaching given above.

1. 5　Dependent Verbs:

By "dependent verbs" is meant those verbs, or those uses of certain verbs usually called 'incomplete verbs,' both transitive and intransitive. This neology is ventured as to give more emphasis on the dependnecy of these verbs upon the so-called "complements" rather than on the alleged shortcomings or incompleteness inherent in the verbs themselves.

We also hope that we can bring more priority to the so-called "complements," presenting them as the focus of the utterance.

We will first take up the case of intransitive verbs taking complements. In such utterances as "Be quiet!" or "Be a hero!", it is always the complement that gets the mental and phonetic stress, and not the verb. Perhaps we could compare each of these with "Go quietly" and "Behave like a hero!" where the complements are replaced by comparable adverbial elements in the form of prepositional phrases. The essential point of comparison here is that in the latter group it is the verb that receives the stress, and that one can act, theoretically speaking, in response to the verb without waiting for the adverbial element that is to follow, which is quite impossible with the former group.

This is a very important distinction. We see here that it is not verb that is in

need of a complement, but that it is the complement that is in need of a verb. Shall we say that "Be quiet!" is almost the imperative form of the adjective 'quiet,' "Be a hero!" that of the noun 'a hero,' rather than say that this formula "verb+complement" is an equivalent to the missing complete verb whose meaning is "to be quiete", "to be a hero", etc. The incompleteness of the so-called incomplete verbs may be redefined as to mean such dependency or complementality of these verbs in their relationship with the complement. When we are in need of curtailment in saying "Be quiet!" we would rather retain the complement than the verb, thus "Quiet!"

The dependent verbs vary in their meanings and nuances, but basically they tell the manner through which the state of affairs desired materializes. Here is an essential departure, so to speak, from the realm of primary system of signals. Imperative intent as expressed in complete verbs is almost an equivalent to a signaling to which even an animal could respond if properly administered. But the imperative intent as expressed by means of dependent verbs plus complement, either in noun or adjective, is something that cannot be replaced by a gesture nor responded upon by an animal. When we say "Be heroic!" or "Be a hero!", we are directing the listener towards the state of affairs that is not in reality but in imagination to which we cannot physically point or describe. For such imperatives to be effective, it presupposes the symbolic faculty, in other words, the nouns and adjectives of this type are in the regime of the secandary system of symbols; they are no longer verbal representations corresponding to the entity and happenings in the actuality.

We should like to institute the formula thus defined as Verb (dependent verb)+C as the fourth type of imperative structure, in which two new terms are being introduced: one, the concept of "complement" as an element of the pattern forming unit or function, or better to define it as a syntactical position, and the other, the concept of adjective, in this case filling the position of complement. The adjective filling the position of complement may be said to be in predicative use, as contrasted to its attributive use where it is submerged into the attributed, the noun that it modifies, qualifies or restricts.

As the imparative, this formula is rather remote in daily use and limited in variety, and we have to wait until we are ready to discuss the indicative sentence with its predicate verb in this type.

Pedagogically speaking this formula has two difficulties besides such limitations, one being how to distinguish the complement in the noun from the noun as object of transitive verbs. The terms of comparison here is ambivalent; they are both equal in being nouns, or noun equivalents, but their status in the sentence in its relationship with the verb is different from each other; there is no intrinsic formal difference (even in the case of pronouns, very often pronouns in complement taking the

accusative form). In this again, it is best to condition the subjects with obvious cases, and we are sure that there will not be many to learn for younger pupils. Condition them with the simplest and clearest examples. Confusion at this stage, if carried on into later stages, will lead to difficulty in comprehension and production. Special attention must be given to the fact that for a Japanese-speaking subject, the literal translation of "Be a good boy!" or "Be nice!" will be almost impossible. Modern and colloquial Japanese has no imperative form for the verb être, and translation causes only confusion.

The second difficulty in this formula is that a complement could be either a noun or an adjective where the terms of difference is again ambivalent. They are equal in being the complement of a dependent verb, but they differ in the order of abstractness, i. e., the distinction we give between nouns and adjectives. We have been using the term "adjective" and "noun" so far without re-defining, more or less accepting what definition has been given to them. For a complete discussion of a grammar, perhaps the noun-ness of the nouns and the adjective-nees of the adjectives have to be difined in their relationship with the actuality comprehended, represented and operated by these terms, and by the difference between these two terms and the corresponding reality. However, we will reserve these for another occasion, and procede in our pedagogic studies.

The foregoing being so, the teaching of this will pose a considerable difficulty for Japanese learners regardless of their age. Some Japanese adjectives, especially those of Chinese origin are derived from nouns without formal changes. This reduces the mental discrimination between nouns and adjectives, though it may be unfelt, and thus when one says "Be happy!" in Japanese it is not brought to awareness whether he is saying the latter term as adjective or noun, as long as he is not obliged to make any formal change in the word standing for "happy" or "happiness." Here again translation as help completely fails and only adds to the confusion. The best way to make this point understood may be to present the contrast between and among 'happy-man,' 'happy' and 'happi-ness.'

It will be, therefore, beneficial to teach that 'happy' and 'happy-man' are, as complement, replaceable with each other, but not with 'happi-ness.' But again there are cases where such replacement is found impossible depending upon the kind (and meaning) of the verb; e. g., "Feel happy!" can not be replaced with "Feel a-happy-man!" unless one adds "yourself" which renders the verb transitive. These subtle cases abound, all depending upon the "degree of dependency or of incompleteness" of the verbs involvd, and here again to give the obvious ones only and practice them until the finer sense of distinction will be acquired will be the best policy.

In this respect, the apparent simplicity is not always assurance of easiness. For

instance, the adjective-adverb distinction or lack of distinction will cause a considerable difficulty as they occur oftener in the basic words. Simple as they may appear, "Go slow!" and "Go slowly!" (which belongs to the former type of sentence pattern), "Feel happy!" and "Feel happily! (a little unnatural, of course)" or "Sleep sound!" "Sleep soundly!" etc. are pairs of this sort. Our solution is not to introduce them prematurely.

1. 6 Causative Verbs:

The last of the formula of syllable patterns is the transitive verb usually called causative verb, taking a direct object and an objective complement. This is the most sophisticated of all the forms of command one can imagine in English, and is most versatile. This combines the accusative formula and an implied situation of dependent verb structure without a grammatical auxiliary but by a juxtaposition of the syllables.

The relationship between the first two terms, the verb and the object does not digress very much from what other so-called transitive verbs (in our terminology, transitive and accusative verbs) and their objects, (the verb the indicated action and the object its receiver,) and usually the causative verbs are those verbs more or less deprived of their concrete meaning so that they are not sufficient to provoke any particular action.

The relationship between the object and the third term, complement, is quite sophisticated. It is abrupt and arbitrary with a slight suggestion of a subject-predicate bond with a far freer grammar, so to speak. The complement in some way or other supplies the image of the object in citation, whether actual, potential or virtual; it is cited from the plane one degree beyond the perspective plane where the first two terms are taking place. In the case of dependent verb formation, the complement was also invoked from the regime of imagination and abstract but it was directly connected with the reality of the receiver of the command, which is quite a different sort of happening from what is involved in the complement-ness of the third term in the acusative formation.

Thus the over-all intent expressed in this English syllogism may be generalized as "Produce or realize the situation where the object designated is, or does, something or becomes a certain state or is in an act of some kind as indicated..."

The complement could be, for this formula, divided into two groups, the fiirst, nouns and noun equivalents, and the second adjectives and those adjective equivalents in which infinitives without 'to' may also be included.

In the case of this complement being a noun or its equivalent, a distinction has to be made between the direct object of the transitive verb; this however, does not pose much difficulty if the point mentioned above is clearly comprehended.

The model for this, for instance, "Keep it clear!" comprises of three terms, the

verb, object and its complement. The first two terms., i. e., "Keep it!" may be sufficient to invoke an action, but with adition of the complement, "clear," the listener is obliged to revise his mental image so far composed around the verb "Keep." The case was somewhat similar with the accusative verb formation, and perhaps in a lesser degree with the dependent verbs. But the width of expectancy, or the reserve one has to make at the beginning, is considerably larger with this case. With such verbs as "let" or "make," there is less chance of misforming the image, but in such cases as "See him come!" the first verb is concrete enough and the listener, no sooner than he receives the message, could start forming his image, and with the arrival of the unexpected complement, he has to revise his mental, if not his physical, process already started.

This is a considerable difficulty. In a way this is a sort of solution, quite English, for the universal difficulty of imperatives through the secondary agent. Instead of demanding "He, come!" or "She, be happy!" we ask impersonally, anyone in presence, to act upon it, thus "Let him come!" or "'Make her happy!". This is often done in such forms as "That she be happy!" or "That he come!" where no secondary person is invoked upon. The stylized "Let us go!" is another example where the secondary person as the agent is completely forgotten.

A similar effect is further reinforced in the fact that in such usual combinations as "Make it clear!" or "Make it a rule!", we can imagine collocations stylized as make-clear, or make-rule, and that they may suggest a complete verb 'clarify' or 'rule-ize,' as the case may be. It is noteworthy that in such cases it is always the complement that becomes the principal part of the product, and what was the verb in the original combination is there reduced to a suffix indicating that the word is a verb with such transitive function; e. g., -fy and -ize., etc.

Just for a contrast, for the imperative formula with dependent verbs, such as "Be quiet!" or "Be a hero!" we cannot imagine a complete verb to replace them, unless, and this *unless* is important, we insert 'yourself' and make the imperative in the form of "Make somebody something or in some state!" which is what we are treating in this chapter.

We could also recall the case of the complete verb with adverbial tags. The transition from "Come! to "Come-in!" is transferred into the accusative verb formation, thus "Bring-in the man" which further changes itself into "Bring the man -in!" where the adverbial-ness of 'in' is quite unstable and approaches the state of a complement... it tends to posess the quality of an adjective. It converges on such forms as "Keep it up!" or "Let it down!"

At any rate, this formation is the last of the syllable patterns we are to propose, and because of the highly complex nature of this formula, the prescription of the

exercise to the children should be made very selectively, but it is better to give them as wide a range of the use of this 'syllogism' in their radical forms exploiting their vivid imagination, In fact English expression does often use this "Verb-object-something else" formation, not seldom to an excess, but nevertheless it gives the expression a "spirit" that is very much English. Such varieties as the ones with complement in varieties of verboids (infinitive, participle) will be very useful and vivid, and we do not think it is too much for young children to learn them and master them.

1. 7　Reflective Verbs:

Unlike the French counterpart, English reflective verb formation is rather limited, which is especially true in the case of imperative sentences. Imperative sentences in reflective verbs are only those cases where "yourself" or "yourselves" are the object of the accusative, transitive, and causative sentences. Even among these cases, we could eliminate those cases where the object happnes to be the doer himself as not purely reflective. There are such reflective verbs that cannot be used without reflective objects, which is in a way a hybrid of transitive and intransitive structure. It seems that reflective pronouns in such cases are being felt less and less necessary and going out of use in English.

Pedagogically speaking, we may not be losing much if we refrain from teaching them to the children at an earlier stage. These verbs may be such as "behave oneself," "repeat oneself," etc.

The distinction from the adverbial uses of the reflective pronouns is of course important but we have not introduced these elements into our curriculum yet.

1. 8　Prohibition:

The negative imperative, or the prohibition in English is formed as a derivative from the imperative formula, which it shares with most of the languages. It seems to be universal that the prohibition is posterior to the imperative, as the negative statement is always posterior to the positive statement. It is presented as a negation of something said in the affirmative. Psychologically the first stage of the negative command may be a request for suspension of what is already taking place in actuality, which may not be necessarily in the nagative; e. g., "Hold!" or "Stop!" etc., will have more immediate effect than demanding "Don't do it any further!" Next comes the disapproval of the act or state of affairs to continue as it does or as it is, hence the naming of the act or the state as a matter of spontaneity, then its negation. (Ref. the past "Go not!' "Steal not!" and the like) To a person laughing it is better to ask "Don't laugh!" than to say "Be serious!".

Prohibition may well be stated before some act is to take place, and the naming of the anticipated act will not be too far-fetched. For a leaving friend, one could readily say "Don't go!" as he sees mentally the friend's going. Thus the most sophysticated

form of prohibition is the negative command where the act not yet realized has to be named once and then negated.

The negative imperative in English is in its own way very much characteristic of English, i. e., the negative vowel has, in /don't/, shifted itself from /uː/ to /ou/ and now does not depend much upon the consonants /nt/. (It is even indifferent to the person and number in statements.) Thus /don't/ has been instituted as a verb of prohibition, so to speak; as we say "Do!" for an obvious act, we say "Don't!" for any act pertinent under the situation. This feature is unique among other languages.

However, a theoretical difficulty arises as we attach what would have been the body of the positive imperative to this /don't/, when specification is felt necessary. (The situation is no better with the emphatic use of /do/ in imperative as well as in indicative sentences.) Perhaps it is a historical consciousness on our part when we faintly feel in the latter segment (in affirmative) the grammatical object of the verb /don't/. That is to say, in "Don't go there!" are not we tempted to feel that it is an equivalent (grammatical) of saying something like "Don't do the act of going there!"?

The difficulty we are hinting at is that how can we accomodate these two verbal elements in a single sentence without doing injustice to the syllable patterns we have so far so cleanly postulated in our discussion. One verbal syllable is enough for a unit utterance of an imperative; isn't that the idea we have been harboring hitherto? The customary solution, however, is that 'do' is in "apposition" with the verb that follows, thus "Don't come!" is a prolongation of what could have been "Come not!" which historically is the case... and that "Do come!" is a protraction of "Come!". And the problem with us is how we could teach this without simply giving a new name to a new phenomena which quite disturbs the so far well-established model of a language, limited as it is.

"Ne...pas" is a French version of this negative formula. It has /ne/ as a minus symbol, and the negation is further confirmed at the end with a /pas/. The English /don't/ seems to be becoming a sort of equivalent to the French 'ne' which, however, is in the phase of decline, giving up its negative power to the final /pas/, and we do not know what is to happen to English /don't/; shall we predict that a repeated negative in the use of /nothing/, or adverbs such as /any/ or /ever/ should ever come in power as the negative symbol? The Japanese language had once a French like negative imperative in the "Na+verb in the affirmative imperative+So!" but it has fared quite differently and we now have the initial negative index 'na' suffxed to the root verb, a sequence contrary to the English negative.

For our pedagogy, we might venture a little and present the initial 'don't' as the negative index prefixed to a verb of any kind in imperative sentences. In contrast, if

any intensification is necessary for affirmative, we could likewise say that the prefix "Do" to the verb will serve the purpose. The solution presented is not perhaps grammatically orthodox, but this is the most practical and realistic way to understand and master the negative imperative without disturbing the so far established scheme of the syllable pattern of English.

We also hope that this compromise solution will be carried on into negatives of indicative sentences when it is time to deal with them.

Syllable Patterns of English
——as revealed in imperative sentences——

1. Embryo Sentences·······················no syllabication
2. Complete Verb Formation:

$$\frac{\text{Complete verb}}{\textit{P. Verb Syllable}} \quad \left(\frac{\text{syntactical terms}}{\textit{kind of syllables}} \right)$$

3. Accusative Verb Formation:

$$\frac{\text{Accusative Verb}}{\textit{P. Verb Syllable}} + \frac{\text{Object}}{\textit{Noun Syllable}}$$

4. Transitive Verb Formation:

$$\frac{\text{Transitive Verb}}{\textit{P. Verb Syllable}} + \frac{\text{Indirect Object}}{\textit{Nouns Syllable}} + \frac{\text{Direct Object}}{\textit{Noun Syllable}}$$

5. Dependent Verb Formation:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \dfrac{\text{Dependent Verb}}{\textit{P. Verb Syllable}} + \dfrac{\text{Complement}}{\textit{Noun Syllable}} \\[2ex] \dfrac{\text{Dependent Verb}}{\textit{P. Verb Syllable}} + \dfrac{\text{Complement}}{\textit{Adjective Syllable}} \end{array} \right.$$

6. Causative Verb Formation:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \dfrac{\text{Causative Verb}}{\textit{P. Verb. Syllable}} + \dfrac{\text{Object}}{\textit{N. Syllable}} + \dfrac{\text{Obj. Complement}}{\textit{N. Syllable}} \\[2ex] \dfrac{\text{Causative Verb}}{\textit{P. Verb Syllable}} + \dfrac{\text{Object}}{\textit{N. Syllable}} + \dfrac{\text{Obj. Complement}}{\textit{Adjective Syllable}} \end{array} \right.$$

7. Reflective Verb Formation:············as 3, 4 and 6 above
8. Prohibition:

$$\frac{\text{Don't}}{\textit{negative prefix}} + \frac{\text{any formation above}}{\textit{body}}$$