

A Semantic Approach to Teaching English in Japanese High School

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1. Introduction: The Problem of Japanese English Education and What English Teachers Should Do

This paper aims to show how semantics contributes to Japanese high school English education. As a case study, we shall pick up infinitive and propose one way to teach infinitive. Also we shall take into account some English teaching situations in high school and think about the effective teaching.

To master a foreign language, we need to memorize many things including vocabulary, idioms, grammar, pronunciations, intonations, and so on. Memorizing is inevitable for the second language acquisition. Naturally, in Japanese English education, junior high and high school students need to memorize many things. One of the problems in school education is that the students tend to learn by rote. Ikegami(2006) states that rote learning is one of the problems in Japanese English education. Ikegami(2006) notes that when students practice rephrasing a sentence into another sentence, they have a tendency to think of two sentences as having the same meaning. Here are the examples;

(1a) John struck Bill.

(1b) Bill was struck by John.

(ibid.: 68)

(2a) John taught Mary English.

(2b) John taught English to Mary.

(ibid.: 80)

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If we follow the theory of iconicity, i.e., “different forms, different meaning.” as Ikegami(2006) mentions(ibid.:70), (1a) should not have the same meaning with (1b), neither do (2a) and (2b). If we know the differences of each sentence, we can choose the appropriate sentence depending on the suitable situation. From his study, the rote learning is not enough to lead to practical use.

From a view point of second language acquisition study, Shirai(2004) points out the limitations of grammar explanations. It may be difficult or impossible for teachers to describe all grammatical items in words. Even if some teachers can, it may be impossible for the students to understand all of what the teachers say.(cf. Shirai 2004) Then Shirai(2004) proposes that teachers should simplify grammatical explanations and introduce many examples to increase students’ ‘input’. His proposal suggests that ‘input’ encourages the understanding of grammar.

To sum up, Ikegami(2006) suggests that rote learning is not enough since it does not apply to practical use. Shirai(2004) tells us the importance of simplification of grammar teaching and increase learner’s input.

Through reviewing these studies, we see what teachers should do in teaching English. First of all, teachers should have the ability to simplify each grammatical item. Then, of course, they should have the ability to explain each item to their students clearly and understandably. As Kuroda (2008) mentions, in this age of the Internet, students can get almost as much information as teachers if they want to. Teachers should teach simplified items clearly to their students all the more.

Also teachers should avoid the method that forces students only to memorize language. When students get the point of a grammatical item through simplified teachings, students can avoid memorization-only study. Teachers should lead their students to understand grammatical items. Even if it is impossible for students to understand grammatical items fully at the earlier point of teaching, teachers should guide their students to understand them sufficiently at some point, as the students’ advances in their studies. In order to do so, teachers should give them many examples to increase their input.

In summary, memorization (or ‘input’) encourages the understanding of the grammar. The understanding of grammar can help the memorization of many examples. Teachers attempt to connect memorization with the understanding of grammar of their students. To achieve the teacher’s goal, there are main two things that teachers should do. First, they are to have the

ability to simplify each grammatical item. Semantics can help to simplify each grammatical item and then students can avoid learning it by rote. Secondly, teachers should give many examples, i.e. ‘input’, to their students.

This study will pick up infinitive as a case study to focus on the deep understanding of a grammatical item, which understanding is needed for the effective teaching. Also we need to simplify infinitive for the effective teaching. To simplify that, we need to know the fundamental function of infinitive.

In the following chapter 2, we shall review some previous studies of infinitive. In chapter 3, we shall point out some problems of previous studies. Then in chapter 4, we shall propose the alternative idea of previous studies and in chapter 5 we shall consider how to simplify the grammatical item, infinitive, and we shall propose one of the ways to teach infinitive effectively. At the same time, we shall take account of some English teaching situations in high school. Then we shall think about what the effective English teaching is and we shall conclude this paper in chapter 6.

2. Previous Studies

In this chapter, we will review previous studies of infinitives. From the view point of iconicity, i.e. the meaning and sign must be related to each other (cf. Tsubomoto 2009), the meaning of preposition *to* and *to* in *to*-infinitive must be related to each other. Many studies about infinitives are based on the idea of iconicity. In the following sections, we shall review some studies of infinitives based on the idea of iconicity. In 2.1, we shall review Shigi(2007).

2.1. End Point

In this section, we shall review Shigi(2007) which states that the meaning of preposition *to* is end point. Also the meaning of *to* in *to*-infinitive is end point from the view point of iconicity.

2.1.1. Shigi (2007)

Shigi(2007) concludes that the meaning of preposition *to* is end point. The definition of end point is stated as follows.

(3) *To* does not have the meaning of any motion or direction.

To shows just a point, and this point is end point (Shigi 2007: 3)

Shigi(2007) argues that when we think about the meaning of preposition *to*, we should not mix up the meaning of preposition *to* with the meaning of sentences or verbs. The example of *I went to the park* can be diagramed as follows.

(4). I went *to* the park.

.....➡ The park (ibid.: 2)

THE FIGURE 1: THE MEANING OF *I WENT TO THE PARK*.

According to Shigi(2007), the sentence (4) means ‘I reached the park’. *Went (go)* means ‘to move to another place’. This ‘dotted arrow’ is the meaning of *went*, and meaning of *to* is an end point, it is shown by ‘the circle’. Thanks to preposition *to*, the park can be interpreted as the ‘arrival point’. (cf. ibid.: 2)

Shigi(2007) attempts to apply the meaning of preposition *to* into all usages of the word *to* in terms of the idea of iconicity, which includes the usages of *to*-infinitive. We shall see the one example from that study.

(5) I got up early *to* get the bus. (ibid.: 11)

Since *to* means end point, ‘*to* phrases’ can be interpreted as ‘some kind of arrival points’ corresponding to the preceding sentences. That is, *to get the bus* is interpreted as ‘a kind of arrival point’ corresponding to *I got up early*. This is because *to* is an ‘end point’, and the interpretation of sentences depends on the context like ‘the purpose’ for (5) (cf. ibid. : 12).

2.1.2. The Problem of Shigi (2007)

Shigi(2007) considers the meaning of *to* and the meaning of sentences or verbs or ‘*to* phrases’ separately. That approach is meaningful to analyze the meaning of words since many studies have mixed up the meaning of preposition *to* and the meaning of sentences as Shigi(2007) points out (cf. Lindstromberg 1997, Tyler & Evans 2003, 2005.) However, it does not explain all phenomena. The problem of Shigi(2007) is that the argument does not take into account the meaning of constructions. We not only consider the meaning of each word and the meaning of sentence separately, but we need to take account of the meaning of constructions. The following examples shall show the validity of that.

(6)Mary taught Bill French.

(7)Mary taught French to Bill.

(Goldberg 1995: 33)

The difference of each sentence is that “[6] implies that Bill actually learned some French, that metaphorical transfer was successful”(ibid.). On the other hand, (7) does not have such implication(cf. ibid.). Goldberg(1995) states that “the central sense of the ditransitive construction can be argued to be the sense involving successful transfer of an object to a recipient, with the referent of subject agentively causing this transfer”(ibid. 33). Also she states that the central sense of transitive construction like (7) is that a volitional actor affects an inanimate patient(cf. ibid.: 118).

The approach taken Shigi(2007) cannot explain the differences between (6) and (7). In the approach, he only focuses on the meaning of words; *to* has the meaning of end point. In that case, the sentence (7) has to have the implication that *Bill* actually learned some French since *to* has the meaning of end point. However, the sentence (6) has the implication that *Bill* actually learned some French as Goldberg(1995) states, though the sentence (6) does not have the word *to*, i.e. end point as Shigi(2007) says. Thus we see that Shigi(2007) fails to consider the meaning of constructions.

When we think about the meaning of *to*-infinitive, we should take into account the meaning of *to* plus infinitive itself, i.e. the bare forms of verbs. Shigi(2007) fails to consider the meaning of infinitive itself.

2.2. Direction Towards

In this section, we shall review Duffley(1992,2006) and Hashimoto(2006), which state that the meaning of preposition *to* is ‘direction towards’.

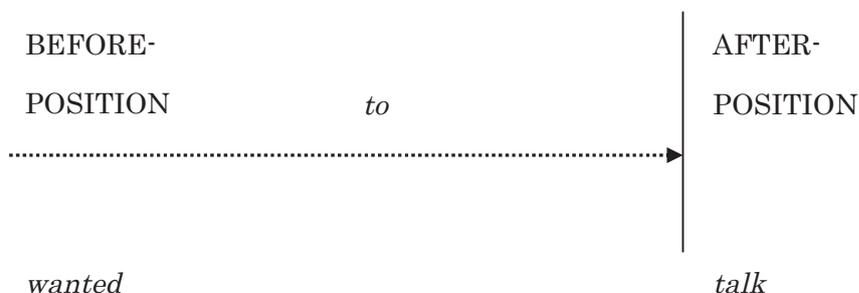
2.2.1. Duffley (1992, 2006)

Duffley(1992, 2006) studies on the English infinitive comprehensively. He takes a monosemy approach, that is, he supposes that “the basic meaning of *to* is the movement leading to a terminus” (Duffley 2006: 43), and he tries to apply to the meaning of *to*-infinitive in terms of temporal subsequence. Duffley(2006) states as follows.

Since the basic meaning of preposition *to* is that of movement leading to a terminus, in its use of the infinitive this preposition evokes the event expressed by the latter as the end-point of a movement. This accounts for the feeling of a constant temporal relation of subsequence between the infinitive and the matrix, which has led some analysts to go so far as to posit a future tense operator in the infinitive. Since the infinitive’s event, which *to* presents as the term of the movement, is a temporal entity, the notion of movement denoted by *to* is normally construed here in terms of time. (ibid. : 43)

Then, he gives two examples and shows the diagrams.

(8) I wanted to talk to Mary about it.

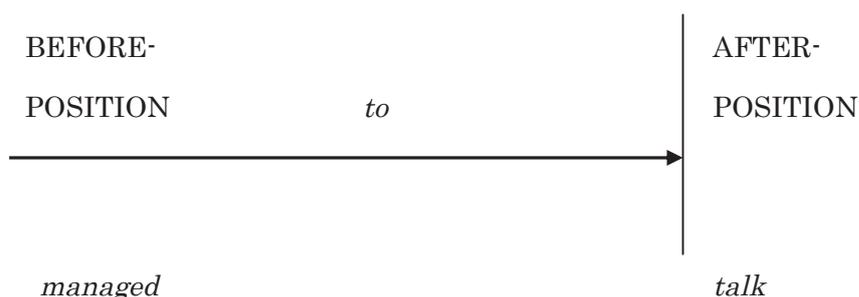


(ibid.: 44)

FIGURE 2: INFINITIVE EVENT EVOKED AS NON-REALIZED

(The dotted line indicates that the movement from the “before” to the “after” is understood as non-realized.)

(9) I managed to talk to Mary about it.



(ibid.: 44)

FIGURE 3: INFINITIVE EVENT EVOKED ACTUALLY REALIZED

(The solid line indicates actual realization of the movement leading to the realization of the infinitive’s event.)

He explains the diagrams as follows.

The event expressed by the matrix verb is understood to constitute a before-position in time with respect to that of the infinitive, which is therefore conceived as an after-position with respect to the matrix verb’s event.(ibid.: 43)

The difference shown by Figure 2 and Figure 3 is the difference whether the each event expressed by the matrix verb evokes as non-realized or realized. The both of the sentences have in common with the temporal subsequence, and it was denoted by *to*. In other words, the event expressed by the matrix clause precedes that of the infinitive.

In the following section, we shall review the infinitive of reaction such as *I am glad to see you*, which seems the opposite sequence of event that Duffley (1992, 2006) proposes.

2.2.1.2. The Infinitive of Reaction

In this section, we are concerned with the infinitive of reaction. The following examples are from Jespersen(1940: 259).

(10) I am glad (happy, delighted, pleased, proud, sorry, angry, ashamed, disappointed, surprised, astonished) to see you here.

Duffley(1992) observes that, in these examples, the clause that follows *to* infinitive event, ‘the seeing’ already realizes, and that is what brought about ‘the gladness’. Duffley(1992) states that at first sight the sentences seem “the opposite sequence of event . . . which our hypothesis should have led us to expect”(Duffley 1992: 123) and considers the sentences comparing them with the sentences with *that* clause.

(11a) I am glad to know that he is safe.

(11b) I am glad that I know that he is safe. (ibid.:123)

He explains the differences between them as follows “[11a] presupposes the person referred to by *I* has been waiting for the news about someone whom he thought to be in danger, [11b] does not, and might be said rather by someone who is comparing himself with other people who do not know this fact”(Duffley 1992: 124). Similar examples are also stated.

(12a) I was glad to see the police car come around the corner.

(12b) I was glad that I saw the police car come around the corner. (ibid.: 124)

He explains (12a) and (12b) as follows.

While in [12b] the speaker is not represented as having any kind of expectations at all, in [12a] . . . the sentence with the infinitive means that speaker was hoping for someone to come to his assistance even before happened (ibid.).

The reason why *to* is used with the infinitive of reaction is summarized as follows.

What is significant for understanding why *to* is used with the infinitive of reaction is that the notion of ‘evaluation’ implies a judgment as to whether the event was opportune or not, and the judgment involves an implicit reference to the situation as it existed before the infinitive event occurred (Duffley 1992: 125).

To sum up Duffley (1992), at first sight, the sentences of the infinitive of reaction seem to be exceptional since the events expressed in *to*-infinitive precede the events expressed in the matrix clause. However they are not the exceptional usages when we take into consideration the notion of evaluation, i.e. the judgment to make an evaluation precedes the occurrence of the infinitive event. Therefore we can assume the before-after relationship in the infinitive of reaction as well as other usages of infinitives stated in 2.2.1.

However, there still remains a question. In 2.2.1. in the *to*-infinitive, the event expressed by the matrix clause precedes that of the infinitive like (8) *I wanted to talk to Mary about it*. In the sentence (8), the two events are regarded as actual things. On the other hand, in 2.2.1.2, in the sentence like (10) *I am glad to see you here.*, the two events are regarded as notional things. The question is that why these differences occur. He does not explain why these are happening. In 2.2.1, he supposes *to* reflects the time subsequence of two events. Then in this 2.2.2, he proposes that *to* reflects the before-after positions if we regard the two events as notional things. Unless we regard the two things as notional things, the subsequence of two events is opposite as Duffley expects. This reason has to be explained, or the supposition that *to* reflects the time sequence may be wrong.

2.2.2. Hashimoto(2006)

In this section, we shall review Hashimoto(2006). He considers how to teach *to*-infinitive

effectively. Hashimoto(2006) also describes the meaning of preposition *to* as “direction”, and he states that the meaning can apply to the expressions of *to*-infinitive. He displays the image schemas of preposition *to* and *to*-infinitive as follows.

(13) ⇒

Place

 (ibid.: 59)

4 :THE IMAGE OF PREPOSITION *TO*

(14) ⇒

Action and the like

 (ibid.: 59)

FIGURE 5 : THE IMAGE OF *TO*-INFINITIVE

Using these image schemas, he explains several grammatical items such as the differences between the meaning of *will* and *be going to*, and *must* and *have to*, and the meaning of *<be to-infinitive>* and so on. We shall see the examples of *<be to-infinitive>*.

- | | |
|--|-------------|
| (15) a. The President is <i>to</i> visit London next week. | (Plan) |
| b. You are <i>to</i> do your homework before watching TV. | (Duty) |
| c. The key was not <i>to</i> be found anywhere. | (Possible) |
| d. If you are <i>to</i> succeed, you must work harder. | (Intention) |
| e. They were never <i>to</i> meet again. | (Destiny) |
| | (ibid.: 64) |

Hashimoto(2006) says that many study guides explain *<be to-infinitive>* as having the above five meanings, that is, *<be to-infinitive>* has many meanings such as ‘plan’, ‘duty’, ‘possible’, ‘intention’, ‘destiny’ as stated above. According to Hashimoto(2006), the problem is that many teachers in high school just tell the students the lists of the meaning of *<be to-infinitive>*, and students just memorize them. Then he argues that teachers should teach *<be to-infinitive>* as the item related to the meaning of preposition *to* like “The Subject (be) [in the direction of] the clause

that follows *to*-infinitive.”(ibid.: 64) We can interpret the <*be to*-infinitive>as follows.

(16) The president is \Rightarrow [to visit London next week].

(17) You are \Rightarrow [to do your homework before watching TV]. (ibid.:64)

In (16), *The president is* [*in the direction of*] *visiting London next week*, and in (17), *You are* [*in the direction of*] *doing your homework before watching TV*. He argues that this explanation can easily show why <*be to*-infinitive> has various meanings, and he continues to argue that what seems as the meanings of <*be to*-infinitive> is not the meaning, but rather they are just interpretations of the meaning of the sentences with <*be to*-infinitive>(cf.: Hashimoto 2006).

The proposal of Hashimoto(2006) seems useful to teach English at one point. However his teaching methods with *to*-infinitive do not seem to apply to the part of the usages of *to*-infinitives such as the infinitive of reaction (see 2.2.1.2). In his approach, the infinitive of reaction should be treated as the exceptional usage of infinitive.

2.3. The Infinitive in Causative Constructions

In this section we shall review some studies of the infinitive in causative constructions.

2.3.1. Tsubomoto (2009)

Tsubomoto(2009) argues about the causative verbs from the view point of ‘iconicity’. Some causative verbs take bare infinitive such as *make*, *have*, *let*, and other verbs take *to*-infinitive such as *get*, *force*, *allow* and so on. Tsubomoto(2009) follows Duffley(1992)’s idea that the notion of movement denoted by *to* is construed in the *to*-infinitive in terms of time. Therefore, *to*-infinitive reflects the temporal subsequence of two events that is expressed in the matrix clause and the clause that follows *to*-infinitive, whereas the bare infinitive reflects the closeness of time, or coincidence since there is no *to*. Tsubomoto(2009) mentions that the existence of *to* makes a difference of the meaning of the bare-infinitive and *to*-infinitive. Then he takes the following examples.

(18) He made us laugh.

(19) He got us to laugh.

(Tsubomoto 2009: 10)

According to Tsubomoto(2009), (19) implies that *he* made some efforts to achieve the result before *we* laughed. The existence of *to* reflects the causer's action, i.e. *he got us*, precedes the ¹causee's action, i.e. *we laugh*. On the other hand, (18) implies that the causative event and the result that was caused by the causer realized simultaneously. Therefore, we need not to put *to* in front of the infinitive to show the precedent of time. In the causative constructions, *to* reflects the subsequence of two events.

2.3.2. Nakao and Koma (1990), Dixon (2005)

In this section, we shall consider the difference between the bare infinitive and *to*-infinitive from the view point of transitivity or directness. Nakao and Koma (1990) study it from the view point of transitivity. The term “transitivity” can be defined as ‘the degree of affectedness of the object.’(cf. Hopper, & Thompson. 1980)

Nakao and Koma(1990) summarize the historical transition of the causative verb *make* with the forms of the complements as follows.

(20) OE		ME		PE
<i>make that</i> clause	⇒	<i>make O that</i> -clause		
		<i>make O to</i> -Inf	⇒	<i>make O Ø</i> -Inf

(ibid: 103)

They state this transition reflects that the transitivity of *make* is getting higher through the history. They argue that the complement of verbs can be decided according to the degree of transitivity, that is, if the transitivity of verbs gets higher, those verbs have difficulty to take *that*-clause and tend to occur with infinitive. In other words, they argue that infinitive is used when the transitivity is high.

¹ The word “causee” is used by Duffley (1992), Hirose (1995), Hollmann (2005) as the meaning of the target which the causer's action intends.

Dixon (2005) argues that ‘directness’ plays its role in the use of infinitive, and when directness is high, bare infinitive is used, and when directness is low, *to*-infinitive is used. The ‘directness’ of the verbs in the matrix clauses relates to the choices of the forms of bare-infinitive or *to*-infinitive in the complement clauses. Before seeing his examples of causative verbs, we shall see the examples of *help*.

(21a) John helped me to write the letter.

(21b) John helped me write the letter.

He mentions “sentence[21b]—without *to*—is likely to imply that John gave direct help” (ibid; 252) such as “writing alternate paragraphs.(ibid.: 251)” On the other hand, “[21a] is more likely to be used if he gave indirect assistance” (ibid; 252.) such as providing pen and ink or suggesting some appropriate phrases and so on.(cf. ibid. 251) Then he says “semantic principle explains, at least in part, the inclusion or omission of *to* with MAKING verbs.”(ibid.: 252) He states that the causative verbs *make* and *let* can be explained through this idea comparing with *cause* and *allow* respectively. The examples are as follows.

(22a) You made me burn the toast by distracting my attention.

(22b) He caused Mary to crash by almost cutting through the brake cable and
then sending her down the mountain road.

(23a) Mary let John mow the lawn.

(23b) Mary allowed John to mow the lawn.

(22a) implies the direct causative action from the causer *you* to the causee *me*. On the other hand, (22b) does not imply the direct causative action. As for (23), he states “*let* focuses on the main clause subject, and the effect it has on the subject of the complement clause.”(ibid.: 252) Then, he supposes *let* have the meaning of ‘directness’, and that is why *let* does not take *to* in front of the infinitive.

However, there still remain some questions as he states the following;

This does not, however, explain why *force*, within often relates to coercion, takes *to*; and why the causative sense of *have*, which may involve some indirect means, omits *to*.(ibid.)

The problem of Dixon (2005) seems that the definition of ‘directness’ is not clear.

Although it seems similar to transitivity, we do not know what the ‘directness’ is definitely.

2.3.3. Relationships between Causer and Causee

Tsubomoto(2009) suggests that we should consider not only the ‘transitivity’ or ‘directness’, but also the relationships between the causer and the causee. *Have* does not have any meaning of transitivity or directness when it is used in the causative constructions. Nevertheless, this verb takes the form of bare-infinitives like the following sentence.

(24) I'll have him clear up this mess. (ibid.: 8)

Tsubomoto(2009) analyses this is because the causee's attitudes are cooperative to the causers when the verb *have* is used in the causative constructions. Unless such attitudes are implied, the sentences with causative verb *have* are unacceptable as follows.

(25)*I had the squirrel leave its tree. (ibid.: 11)

According to Tsubomoto (2009), in the sentence (24), the achievement of the causer's action is implied simultaneously when the causer's action occurs, for the causee's attitudes are cooperative to the causer. Therefore the verb *have* can take the bare infinitive, though the ‘transitivity’ or ‘directness’ of the causer's action is not high.

2.4. The Summary of The Previous Studies

In this chapter 2, we have reviewed some previous studies. In 2.1, the study of Shigi(2007) suggests that we should take account of the meaning of infinitive itself when we think about the meaning of *to*-infinitive. In 2.2, from the study of Duffley(1992, 2006), we suspect the

validity of his supposition that *to* in *to*-infinitive reflects the temporal subsequence. In 2.3, from the studies of causative verbs, we have seen the difference between *to*-infinitive and bare infinitive. From the view point of iconicity, *to* reflects the temporal subsequence, and bare forms reflect the closeness of time, or coincidence (cf. Tsubomoto 2009). Also we should take into consideration of the notion of transitivity or directness (cf. Nakao and Koma 1990, Dixon 2005).

3. The Problems of Previous Studies

In this chapter, we shall analyze the previous studies and point out the problems of previous studies.

3.1. The Meaning of Infinitive

In 2.1., we notice that *to*-infinitive is made up of *to* plus infinitive. First of all, we shall consider the meaning of infinitive.

Wada(1992) points out the infinitive itself has the meaning of ‘unreality’, the things which are not actual. That is why we use the infinitive in the imperative form or subjunctive or the position after the auxiliary verbs (cf. *ibid.*: 74).

Tomoshige(2002) observes that it is generally said that *to*-infinitive has the meaning of ‘future oriented’ such as hypothetical, possibility, especially comparing it with gerund, which is said that it has the meaning of facts, actual accomplishments like the followings.

(26) She hoped to learn French.(possibility)

(27) She enjoyed learning French.(actual accomplishment) (*ibid.*: 133)

(26) implies the possibility of leaning French. (27) implies *she* actually learned French.

However, he states there are the examples that do not follow the each meaning.

(28) I’m interested in working in Switzerland. Do you know anybody who could help me?

(29) I was interested to read in the paper that scientists have found out how the universe began.

(ibid.: 144)

The gerund in (28), i.e. *working* expresses the thing which has not been realized yet. Also the *to*-infinitive clause in (29), i.e. *to read* expresses the thing which happened before *I got interested*. He concludes that the meaning of ‘future-oriented’ seen in the *to*-infinitive is only just a general tendency. Of course he admits that there is the tendency; *to*-infinitive tends to express ‘future events’, however it cannot express the whole thing. We may suppose that his conclusion is reasonable. Or we can say that it is a natural result, for we suppose the meaning of the infinitive itself is ‘unreality’ as Wada(1992) points out. The notion of ‘unreality’ can easily be connected with the future events, on the other hand, it cannot express the past events since the past events were already realized, and they cannot match the notion of ‘unreality’.

3.2. The Problems of Duffley (1992, 2006)

Duffley(2006) supposes that “the basic meaning of *to* is the movement leading to a terminus”(Duffley 2006 : 43), and he tries to apply to the meaning of *to*-infinitive in terms of time sequence. Tomoshige (2002) mentions that the meaning of ‘future oriented’ in the *to*-infinitive is just a general tendency, the temporal subsequence, which the event of the matrix clause precedes the events of *to*-infinitive clause, should also be just a tendency. Duffley tries to apply the meaning of the basic meaning of *to* to the infinitive of reaction such as the sentence, *I am glad to see you here*, it cannot be acceptable since the actual sequence of events are opposite. He fails to take into consideration of the meaning of infinitive itself fully, though he noticed that *to*-infinitive was made up of *to* plus bare-infinitive.

3.3. The Causative Verbs Used with Infinitives

Tsubomoto(2009)’s approach is not accurate. He thinks the difference between the bare infinitive and the *to*-infinitive is the difference between the coincidence and the precedent of

time based on Duffley(1992)'s approach. The fundamental problem of previous studies we have seen in 2.3 are that they treat the event of the matrix clause and the notional thing expressed by the infinitive / *to*-infinitive clause as the equal rank, using the actual event's temporal subsequence. However, the event expressed in the matrix clause and the notion expressed in the infinitive / *to*-infinitive clause cannot be compared as the temporal subsequence of actual (realized) events. Since the infinitive itself is not actual, it cannot be compared with the two clauses theoretically.

3.4. Analysis of Previous Studies

The previous studies such as Shigi(2007), Duffley(1992, 2006), Tsubomoto(2009) fails to consider the meaning of infinitive itself. Duffley(1992, 2006) and Tsubomoto (2009) assume that the *to* in front of the infinitive reflects the temporal subsequence derived from the meaning of preposition *to* "the movement leading to a terminus"(Duffley 2006: 43). The meaning of temporal subsequence is applied to the causative constructions used with infinitive, that is, the existence of *to* reflects the precedent of the event of the matrix clause and the absence of *to* reflects non-subsequence of time in the sentences. (cf. Duffley 1992, Tsubomoto 2009)

The matter is not quite as simple as those previous studies suggest. When we think about causative events, we suppose the causer and the causee. Then apparently the causer's action precedes the causee's action. The sentence like (18) *He made us laugh.* applies to it as well, that is, causer's action *he made us* precedes the causee's action *laugh*. The difference between the bare-infinitive and *to*-infinitive is not only the matter of temporal subsequence, but the degree of achievement in the event expressed by the verbs of the matrix clause.

Also if there is the meaning of temporal subsequence in *to*-infinitive, it is hard to imagine that the subsequence can be opposite as in the reaction of infinitive, even if we can suppose the before-after sequence when we regard the events as notional things. This fact leads us to throw a doubt on the assumption of the meaning of the *to*-infinitive; temporal subsequence.

It should be concluded that the previous studies are wrong in their assumptions that *to*-infinitive shows the subsequence of time. As Duffley himself points out at one point, "studying the *to* infinitive all by itself neglects the obvious fact that it is made up of *to* plus bare

infinitive”(Duffley 1992: 2). However, his approach is based on the temporal subsequence of the event of the matrix clause and the *to*-infinitive clause as the before position and after position. The fundamental problem is that he fails to take account of the meaning of infinitive itself, though he notices that *to*-infinitive is made up of *to* plus infinitive.

4. Consideration

From the argument of 3.4, we have a doubt that *to* does not mean the temporal subsequence of its own. Now our concerns are to consider what the *to* functions or how it contributes to the meanings of the sentences with *to*-infinitive. In the following 4.1, in order to consider the functions of *to*, we shall compare ‘the verbs used with infinitive’ with ‘the verbs used with *to*-infinitive’ in the causative constructions.

4.1. Infinitives in Causative Constructions

The causative verbs with bare-infinitive, such as *make*, *have*, *let*, focus on the achievement or the effect of causer’s action. At the same time, the constructions are implied that the causee’s actions are also accomplished. On the other hand, the causative verbs with *to*-infinitive, such as *force*, *allow*, *get*, focus on how the causative actions occur, in other words, the causative manner is focused. Let us take some examples.

4.1.1. Causative Verbs: *force* vs. *make*

Let us compare *force* with *make*. *Force* takes a *to*-infinitive and *make* takes a bare infinitive. The following examples are from Duffley (1992).

(30) He forced me to laugh.

(31) He made me laugh.

(Duffley 1992: 67)

“In [30] one gets the impression of a person laughing against his own will, because of some external coercion” (Duffely 1992: 67).

In [31] the first reading is “he provoked my laughter” without any independent intervention of ‘me’. . . . The second reading, a note of coercion, or rather moral suasion, can be felt, but even here one gets the impression that ‘he’ reduced any opposition so that the cause was . . . a mere instrument acting under coercion. (ibid: 67)

Hollmann(2005) mentions that if we put adverbs which imply gradualness, the acceptability of the sentence with the causative verb *make* gets lower.

(32) ??The police finally made him confess to the crime. (Hollmann. 2005: 12)

In short we can summarize the difference between *force* and *make* as follows.

(33) *Force* (*to*-infinitive) focuses on how the causative action occurs; the causative manner.

Make (bare infinitive) focuses on the achievement of the causative events.

(33) shows that the meaning of *force* and *make* has a different focus. It does not show *to* reflects the temporal subsequence.

4.1.2. Causative Verbs: *allow* vs. *let*

Allow and *let* have the meaning of permission, but *allow* must be followed by *to*, *let* takes only the bare infinitive (Duffley 1992: 83). The differences between them can be shown in the following examples.

(34a) I *allowed* him *to do* it, but he didn't do it.

(34b) *I *let* him *do* it, but he didn't do it.

(35a) I don't/ didn't *allow* him *to do* it, but he does/ did it.

(35b) *I don't/ didn't *let* him *do* it, but he does/ did it. (ibid.: 85)

These examples suggest when the causer *let* causee *do*, the realization of the action permitted is implied at the same time, on the other hand, *allow* does not have such an implication of the realization (cf. *ibid*: 85). Similarly, Dixon points out “*let* focuses on the main clause subject, and the effect it has on the subject of the complement clause”(Dixon 2005: 252)

In short we can summarize the difference between *allow* and *let* as follows.

(36) *Allow* (*to*-infinitive) focuses on the causative manner.

Let (bare-infinitive) focuses on the achievement of the causative events.

The same as 4.1.1, *to* does not reflect the temporal subsequence, rather it reflects the difference of focuses.

4.1.3. The Meaning; Bare Infinitive vs. *to*-Infinitive

As we have observed the previous sections in 4.1.1 and 4.1.2, the causative constructions with bare-infinitive, i.e., *make* and *let* focus on the achievement or the effect of causer’s action, that is, they are implied that the causee’s actions are also accomplished. On the other hand, the causative constructions with *to*-infinitive, i.e., *force*, *allow* focus on how the causative actions occur, that is, the causative manner is focused.

Now let us consider what is the difference between the bare infinitive and *to*-infinitive is in meaning in the causative constructions. As we have seen in chapter 3.4, it is not appropriate to say that the bare infinitive sentences reflect the coincidence of two events. If *to* does not reflect the temporal sequence, we need to propose the alternative idea of *to*.

4.2. Alternative Idea of *to*

We would propose here that the bare infinitive sentences are interpreted as one unit, while *to*-infinitive sentences are interpreted as two units. The number of units represents our cognitions. First, let us take the example of bare infinitive using the sentence (31)*He made me*

laugh. as (37). It can be diagrammed as Figure 6.

(37) He made me laugh. **Cognition**

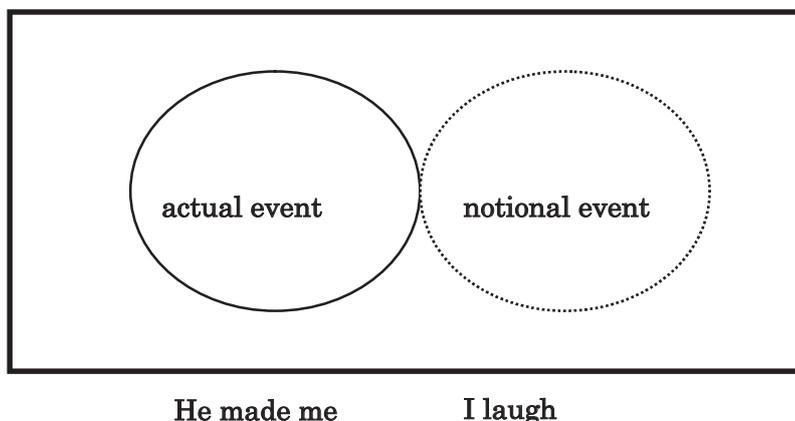


FIGURE 6: CAUSATIVE VERB WITH BARE INFINITIVE

Figure 6 shows the interpretation of sentence (37). The components of the unit are an actual event and a notional event. The left solid circle shows the actual event expressed by the matrix clause; *he made me*, and the right dotted circle shows the notional event expressed by the infinitive; *laugh*. The rectangle enclosing the two circles shows our cognitions. It shows our cognition as one unit.

Next, let us take the example of *to*-infinitive using the sentence (30) *He forced me to laugh*. as (38). It can be diagrammed as Figure 7.

(38) He forced me to laugh.
Cognition

Cognition

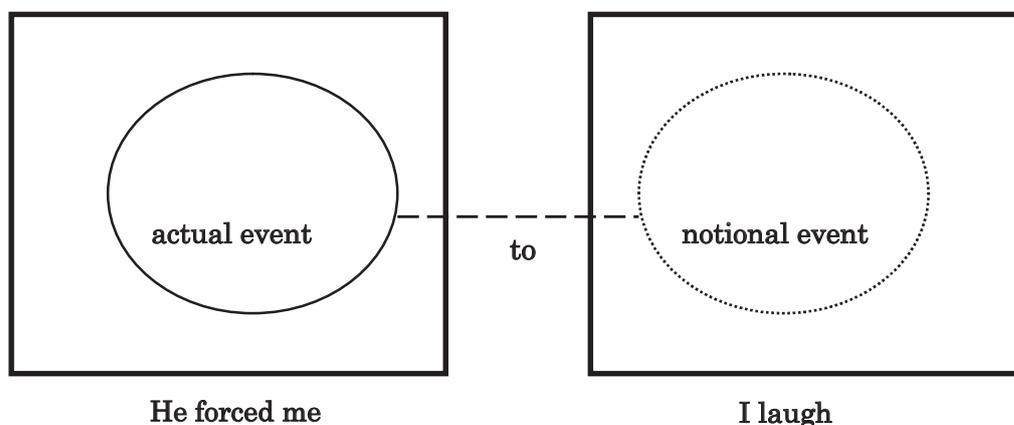


FIGURE 7: CAUSATIVE VERB WITH TO-INFINITIVE

Figure 7 shows the interpretation of sentence (38). The left solid circle shows the actual event; *he forced me*, and the right dotted circle shows the notional event; *laugh*. The line between them shows the marker of separating the actual thing from the notional thing; *to*. The two solid rectangles enclosing each circle show our cognitions. They show our cognitions as two units. Thanks to the existence of *to*, we can cognate each thing distinctively, and then we can focus on the causative manner and the notional event respectively.

The point is that *to* itself does not mean the temporal subsequence, i.e. the event expressed by the matrix clause precedes that of *to*-infinitive as Duffley (1992) and Tsubomoto (2009) propose. The original meaning of *to*; ‘direction towards’ (cf. OED) evokes the distance between the two components in our interpretations.

Figure 7 shows that *to* itself does not mean the temporal subsequence. The *to* functions as the marker of separating the actual thing from the notional thing. Figure 6 and Figure 7 illustrate that our cognitions can produce the temporal sequence as our interpretations, but not the meaning of *to*. The significance of these figures is that we can take account of the meaning of infinitive itself, i.e. unreality (Wada 1992). In other words, infinitives show the notional things. This argument leads us to consider our perceptions, which has never considered through the previous studies.

In short, *to* functions as the marker of separating the actual thing from the notional thing. *To* does not mean the temporal subsequence of its own. A good point for showing these figures is that we can explain why the infinitive of reaction can occur in *to*-infinitive construction.

4.2.1. The Infinitive of Reaction

As we have seen in 2.2.1.2, at first sight, the reaction of infinitive seems to show the opposite event sequence that Duffley (1992) expects. If *to* reflects the temporal subsequence, we cannot explain ‘the infinitive of reaction’ such as *I am glad to see you; seeing you* precedes *I am glad* in temporal subsequence. This sentence also can be illustrated by the same figure as Figure7.

(39) I am glad to see you.

Cognition

Cognition

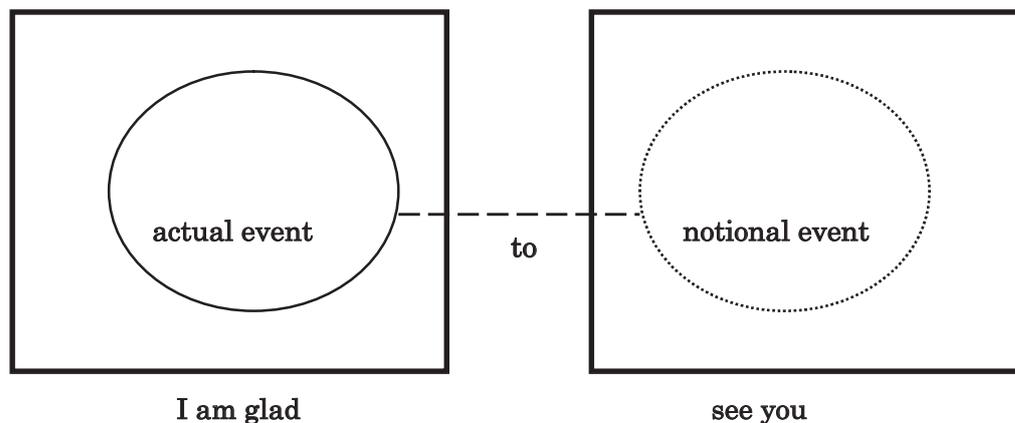


FIGURE 8: THE INFINITIVE OF REACTION

Figure 8 shows the interpretation of (39). The left solid circle shows the actual state; *I am glad*. The right dotted circle shows the notional event; *see you*. The line between them shows the marker of separating the actual thing from the notional thing; *to*. The two solid rectangles enclosing each circle show our cognitions. The two rectangles show our cognitions as two units. Thanks to the existence of *to*, we can cognate each thing distinctively. The matrix clause, *I am glad* shows the present state, which indicates the state after changing from the different state. It cannot be connected with the future notion. Then we can interpret the infinitive clause as the cause. Again, *to* functions as the marker of separating the actual thing from the notional thing. *To* does not mean the temporal subsequence.

When we mention that *to* does not mean the temporal subsequence in *to*-infinitives, it does not mean that we deny the tendency of interpretation of 'futurity'. In fact, many examples are interpreted as future events in *to*-infinitives. This is because the meaning of infinitive is 'unreality' (cf. Wada 1992), and the notion is easily connected to future events.

5. How to Utilize This Study for Teaching English

Now let us think about how to utilize this study for English teaching. In chapter 1, we have seen two things which English teachers should do; one is to simplify each grammatical item

and the other is to give many examples, input.

In this study, we propose that *to* in *to*-infinitive does not mean the temporal subsequence. The original meaning of *to*; ‘direction towards’ (cf. OED) evokes the distance between the two components in our interpretations. Also *to* in *to*-infinitive is originally from preposition *to* (cf. OED). Therefore, the meaning or function of preposition *to* and *to* in *to*-infinitive have in common, and that is ‘the distance’. This illustrates the simplification of grammatical items.

We propose that we teach the meaning of preposition *to* and *to* in *to*-infinitive as just ‘the distance’. We take the examples (4), (5), (10), as (40), (41), (42).

(40) I went *to* the park. (Shigi. 2007: 2)

(41) I got up early *to* get the bus. (ibid. :11)

(42) I am glad *to* see you here. (Jespersen. 1940: 259)

We interpret the meaning of *to* as (40) ‘arrival’, (41) ‘purpose’, and (42) ‘cause’, respectively. We need to memorize the interpretation for each sentence. However each meaning of *to* in the sentence (40), (41), (42) can be regarded as the same. That is ‘the distance.’ As for (40), it is between *I* and *the park*, (41), between the situation of *I got up early* and *getting the bus*, and (42), between the state of *I am glad* and *seeing you here*.

When we just teach that *to* represents ‘some kinds of distance’, the students do not have to memorize each interpretation respectively. Therefore, this teaching can lead to a reduction of students’ burden. Also when students do not understand the meanings of sentences included *to*, they can guess the meanings.

Students can increase their input included *to* no matter whether the usages are infinitive or preposition. They just need to keep in mind that *to* shows ‘the distance’.

In the following section, in order to support this teaching method, we shall see two studies. One is Tomasello(2003), the other is Otsuka(2008).

5.1. Tomasello(2003)

Tomasello(2003) offers a useful hint to us how to utilize this study for Japanese English

education. He studies how to acquire our first language. His approach is based on a usage-based linguistics; “language structure emerges from language use.”(Tomasello. 2003: 5) Also he states that “usage-based theories hold that the essence of language is its symbolic dimension, with grammar being derivative” (ibid.). One of the reasons he argues the theory is in his observation of how small children acquire irregular verbs in English for their first language. According to Tomasello (2003) children start to use the past form of verbs in about 2 years old. They use the past form of verbs correctly at this stage. Then, in about 4 years old, they sometimes make a mistake in using the past form of verbs, such as *comed or *singed. This is because they overgeneralize the rule for regular verbs; to add -ed for making the past form of verbs, into irregular verbs.

By about the time they enter elementary school, they learn to use past tense of the verbs properly having their mistakes correct by adults around them (cf. Tomasello 2003 : chapter 6). To sum up, children acquire their first language through a process of usage-based theory. The order of process is summarized as (43).

(43) Input→imitation→overgeneralization→correction→acquisition (cf. ibid.)

Tomasello(2003) indicates that enough ‘input’ is essential for our language acquisition. Of course, the second language acquisition and the first language acquisition are quite different things. However, we know that, in order to acquire the language, much ‘input’ is essential.

5.2. Otsuka(2008)

Otsuka(2008) studies the way of effective English teaching for the second language learners. According to Otsuka(2008), there are two processes for our language acquisition. One is ‘Rule-based processing’, which is mainly used for the second language acquisition, and the other is ‘Exemplar-based processing’, which is normally used for the first language acquisition (cf. Otsuka 2008. 11-12).

‘Rule-based processing’ is the process of using our grammatical and lexical knowledge. Therefore, we can produce many sentences using this process, but it can be a burden for our

brains and it takes time to response. On the other hand, 'Exemplar-based processing' is the process of drawing the whole sentence (or phrase) from one's own memory. It is suitable for quick responses, but it is inapplicable for producing other sentences. Therefore, the situations of being able to use this process are limited (cf. *ibid.*).

Otsuka(2008) points out that teachers tend to focus on Rule-based teaching comparing to Exemplar-based teaching. According to him, the two processes supplement each other and need to be well-balanced. He argues that increasing Exemplar-based teaching is the key to effective teaching (cf. Otsuka. 2008: 21).

5.3. How to Increase Students' Input in High School Education

Through the studies of Tomasello(2003) and Otsuka(2008), our concerns are to consider the way how to increase students' 'input'. However there are some difficult situations to do that in some high schools. In order to increase students' input, not only our effective teaching, but students' own motivation for learning is indispensable.

There are not a few high school students who have little desire to learn English. Many of them fail to follow their classes early in their junior high school days and give up keeping up with their classes. There should be various causes that they fail to follow their classes. They might be their own laziness or teacher's careless words to the students. Whatever the causes are, the difficulty for teaching in high school is that they have little desire to learn English. Studies for the second language acquisition show the limitations of grammar explanations as we have seen in chapter 1(cf. Shirai 2004). Also through the studies of Tomasello(2003) and Otsuka(2008), we know that it is important to increase students' input. Therefore teachers encourage their students to increase their 'input', but it is useless for the students who have little motivation for learning to do so, because they cannot endure seeing many examples in their feelings of lack of understanding.

In such a situation, first of all, teachers should try to get back the students' motivation. Though it is not easy and might take time, we will introduce some approaches of reading classes for the students who do not like English.

5.4. 1. Some Approaches to Raise The Students' Motivation

First of all, teachers should try to reduce the burden of students, and then give them an experience of success. In the classes, teachers hand out the printed sheets such as Data 1 or 2. As for the Data 1, the sentences are divided into each chunk, and each Japanese translation is listed with some blanks next to each chunk. This method is based on Yasugi(2010). Before working on this sheet, we practice blank words using flash cards. As for the Data 2, the sentences are divided into each chunk and each Japanese translation is listed next to it. Japanese translations are partially marked, teachers ask their students to find out the words or phrases in English. Then, we practice the words using flash cards.

The point is to reduce students' burden. Many of them do not understand the constructions of sentences. Therefore it is too hard for them to interpret each sentence. The purpose for these activities is to let them try to see English sentences. We focus on the interpretations of only some sentences for the mid-term or final examinations.

We also give them pre-test before the examinations such as Data 3 and practice memorizing some sentences in the classes. Teachers let them know that the three sentences in the Data 3 shown by ㊦, ㊧, ㊨ should be on the coming examination, but the order of phrases should be changed. Then many students try to memorize the sentences for the examination.

After the examination, the students think back to their efforts using the sheet of Data 4 for self-reflection. Most students can write down something positive for the question 3: what did you learn through your effort? Some write down the words they memorize, others do the sentences. The purpose of this activity is to let them direct their attentions to what they could do. Many students who do not like English at the time of entering high school tend to give up trying easily when they feel they do not understand. The problem is that they cannot think of what they learn or they can do. Through these activities, most students could turn their attentions to what they learned.

5.4.2. What is The Effective Teaching?

We should try to find out how to teach each grammatical item efficiently. However it is

not all what teachers should think about. Many students who do not like English at the time of entering high school are thought to have an experience as failing to understand at the point of Rule-based teachings. Therefore they tend to think that they cannot understand any rules for English grammar because they think they do not understand very basic English grammatical items. In such a situation, teachers should reduce the burden for students first and try to give small experience of success and let them think of what they learn.

There is a possibility that inefficiency could help for effective teaching. When teachers simplify some grammatical items and teach them to their students, the students have to have motivation for learning. Unless they desire to learn, the good teaching can be bad. Some good approaches can be bad approaches for some students. Through this chapter, we know that the effective English teaching can be varied depending on the students. Therefore teachers should have the ability to use Rule-based processing and Exemplar-based processing properly, according to the students levels and attitudes.

In the beginning of this chapter, we propose one approach of teaching infinitive; we teach students that *to* represents just ‘the distance’, and increase students’ input. This approach illustrates the simplification of the grammatical item and focuses on increasing students’ input. As Otsuka(2008) points out, teachers tend to focus on Rule-based teaching. Our approach can be useful for some students.

6. Conclusion

One of the problems in Japanese English education is that the students tend to memorize many grammatical items mechanically without understanding them. To begin with this paper, we are concerned about what teachers should do in English teaching. Teachers should attempt to connect the memorization with the understanding of grammar of their students. Teachers should have the ability to simplify the complex grammatical items and increase students’ input. At the same time, teachers have to understand each grammatical item deeply to match the variety of students’ needs, and not to lead their students to do a memorization-only study. To achieve the goal, we have taken up the infinitive as the case study.

Many studies attempt to explain that *to* in front of the infinitive reflects the temporal subsequence derived from the meaning of preposition *to* “the movement leading to a terminus”

(Duffley 2006: 43). However, this cannot explain the whole phenomenon such as *I am glad to see you*. The expected temporal sequence is opposite direction in the sentence. The failure of the previous studies is that they do not concern with the meaning of the infinitive itself, i.e. unreality.

To-infinitive is made up of *to* plus infinitive, therefore we should consider the meaning of infinitive, too. We regard the meaning of infinitive as ‘unreality’, and we can conclude that *to* does not reflect the temporal sequence in the infinitive sentences. *To* functions as the marker of separating the actual thing from the notional thing. Finally we can see the temporal sequence is produced not by *to*, but our cognitions shown in Figure 6,7, and 8.

In the chapter 5, we consider how to utilize our study for teaching English. When we simplify the infinitive, we propose that we teach it as representing just ‘the distance’ as well as the meaning of preposition *to*. This way of teaching can reduce the students’ burden because students do not need to memorize the all usages of infinitive.

Then we take into account of the situations in high school English teaching, we see the problem of the students who do not like English. The fundamental problem is that they have little desire to learn English. Then we introduce some approaches to try to get back the students’ motivation. Through thinking of the effective teaching and some English teaching situations in high school, we notice that the effective teaching can be ineffective. Therefore, we try to find out the effective teaching depending on each situation. It might be good for some students to list the usages of infinitive first, and memorize the sentences. The infinitive teaching we propose in this study can be useful for some situations. The important thing is that teachers have various choices for the suitable teaching, according to their students.

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Data1

Lesson 1 Run, Yumeroman! Class _____ No _____ Name _____

Part 1 意味のまとまりにごとに分けられた次の文章の()を埋めなさい。(教科書 p.6)

- | | |
|--|------------------------|
| ①Shizunai Agricultural High School is a school | ①静内()高校は学校である |
| ②where students can learn | ②生徒が()ことができる |
| ③how to raise and take care of horses. | ③馬を()したり世話をしたりする方法を// |
| ④Students come here | ④生徒は()へ来ます |
| ⑤from all over Japan. | ⑤()// |
| ⑥“We all love horses | ⑥「僕たちはみな馬が好きで、 |
| ⑦and would like to have a horse-related job | ⑦馬に()仕事に就きたいと思う |
| ⑧in the future.” | ⑧()」 |
| ⑨says one of the students | ⑨と()の1人は言う |
| ⑩in the riding club. | ⑩()の// |
| ⑪The students in the club | ⑪()の生徒は |
| ⑫have a very busy school life. | ⑫とても()を送っている// |
| ⑬They wake up at five, | ⑬彼らは()に目を覚まし |
| ⑭clean the stables, | ⑭()を清掃して |
| ⑮feed the horses | ⑮馬に()を与え |
| ⑯and then let them out into the fields. | ⑯それから馬をフィールドに()。// |
| ⑰After school | ⑰() |
| ⑱they practice riding the horses, | ⑱彼らは()練習をし |
| ⑲groom them, | ⑲馬に()、 |
| ⑳and feed them again. | ⑳()えさを与える。// |
| ㉑In order to lead this kind of life, | ㉑()生活を送るために |
| ㉒some of them live in a dormitory. | ㉒彼らのなかには()に住むものもいる// |
| ㉓Their lives are centered | ㉓彼らの生活は()としている |
| ㉔around the horses. | ㉔馬を// |
| ㉕In 2002, | ㉕2002年 |
| ㉖a beautiful thoroughbred was born here. | ㉖ここで美しい()が誕生した// |
| ㉗He was named “Yumeroman,” | ㉗彼は「ユメロマン」と() |
| ㉘horse of dreams and hopes. | ㉘夢と()の馬を意味する// |

問1.①②③を1文の自然な日本語に訳せ。

問2.③④を1文の自然な日本語に訳せ。

Data1

Lesson 1 Run, Yumeroman! Class _____ No _____ Name _____

Part 2 意味のまとまりにごとに分けられた次の文章の()を埋めなさい。(教科書 p.8)

- | | |
|--|-----------------------------------|
| ①It is never easy | ①決して()なことではない |
| ②to raise thoroughbreds. | ②サラブレッドを()ことは |
| ③Sakuraoji, | ③サクラオウジは |
| ④the first thoroughbred born at the school, | ④学校で最初に()サラブレッドだが |
| ⑤hurt one of his legs | ⑤()の1本を負傷し |
| ⑥and could not race after that. | ⑥その後は()。 |
| ⑦The second thoroughbred, | ⑦()のサラブレッドは |
| ⑧a female, | ⑧メスである(が)、 |
| ⑨had to be put down | ⑨() |
| ⑩after one of her legs | ⑩脚の1本を(～したあと) |
| ⑪was accidentally injured by her mother. | ⑪()母馬にけがをさせられた(あと) |
| ⑫It was very painful for everybody. | ⑫それはだれにとってもとても()。 |
| ⑬The students learned | ⑬生徒たちは() |
| ⑭that raising thoroughbreds for racing and
keeping pets | ⑭レース用のサラブレッドを()ことと
ペットを()ことは |
| ⑮are quite different things. | ⑮()だということを |
| ⑯Because of these tragic accidents, | ⑯このような()な事故のために |
| ⑰Yumeroman, | ⑰ユメロマンは |
| ⑱the third thoroughbred, | ⑱()目のサラブレッドであるが |
| ⑲was raised very carefully | ⑲とても()育てられ |
| ⑳and even spoiled a little. | ⑳()甘やかされさえもした。 |
| ㉑As a result, | ㉑() |
| ㉒he became a naughty horse. | ㉒彼は()馬になった。 |
| ㉓He often acted wildly | ㉓彼は()野生的にふるまったり |
| ㉔and tried to bite the students, | ㉔生徒を()した |
| ㉕but they all loved him. | ㉕しかし、みな彼が大好きだった。 |
| ㉖A year passed by | ㉖1年が()、 |
| ㉗and Yumeroman had to leave the school. | ㉗ユメロマンは学校を() |
| ㉘He was handed over | ㉘彼は() |
| ㉙to a new owner. | ㉙新しい()に |
| ㉚Seeing his empty stable, | ㉚()の厩舎を見て |
| ㉛the students felt very sad. | ㉛生徒たちはとても悲しく()。 |

Data2

Lesson 2 Your Style, Your Future

class _____ No _____ Name _____

★日本語の (1)~(35) の単語、熟語を左の英文から抜き出さない。

part 1

Jenny:

- ① I wonder
- ② what calligraphers actually do.

Ms. Narita:

- ③ We spend a lot of time
- ④ preparing works for exhibitions.
- ⑤ Also
- ⑥ most of us teach calligraphy

- ⑦ to make a living.
- ⑧ In my case,
- ⑨ I sell my works
- ⑩ on the Internet.
- ⑪ While writing,
- ⑫ I usually listen to R&B and hip-hop.

Jenny:

- ⑬ That's surprising!
- ⑭ Does Japanese traditional culture
- ⑮ go with the Internet and hip-hop?

ジェニー:

- ① 私は⁽¹⁾疑問に思う
- ②⁽²⁾書道家は⁽³⁾実際に何をするのか

成田さん:

- ③ 私たちはたくさんの時間を⁽⁴⁾費やす
- ④⁽⁵⁾展覧会のために⁽⁶⁾作品を⁽⁷⁾準備することに
- ⑤⁽⁸⁾また
- ⑥ 私たちのうち⁽⁹⁾ほとんどは⁽¹⁰⁾書道を教えている

- ⑦⁽¹¹⁾生計を立てるために
- ⑧⁽¹²⁾私の場合は
- ⑨ 自分の作品を⁽¹³⁾売っている
- ⑩ インターネット上で
- ⑪⁽¹⁴⁾書いている間は
- ⑫ 私は⁽¹⁵⁾たいていR&Bやヒップホップを聴いている

る

ジェニー:

- ⑬⁽¹⁶⁾それは驚きだ
- ⑭ 日本の⁽¹⁷⁾伝統的な文化が
- ⑮ インターネットやヒップホップと⁽¹⁸⁾合うのだろうか

(1)

(3)

(5)

(7)

(9)

(11)

(13)

(15)

(17)

(2)

(4)

(6)

(8)

(10)

(12)

(14)

(16)

(18)

Data2

Ms. Narita:

- ⑩ Yes!
- ⑪ Calligraphy has a long history
- ⑫ but it isn't old-fashioned.
- ⑬ In fact,
- ⑭ you can see a lot of calligraphy
- ⑮ in your everyday life.
- ⑯ For example,
- ⑰ on restaurant menus,
- ⑱ bottle labels,
- ⑲ and advertising displays.

Jenny:

- ⑳ Really?
- ㉑ That sounds interesting!
- ㉒ What do you want to express
- ㉓ through your works?

Ms. Narita:

- ㉔ I want to express
- ㉕ how I am feeling.
- ㉖ Many people use art and music
- ㉗ to express themselves.
- ㉘ As for me,
- ㉙ It is calligraphy that expresses what I am.

- ㉚ I'd like to improve my skills
- ㉛ and hold an exhibition abroad some day.

- (19)
- (21)
- (23)
- (25)
- (27)
- (29)
- (31)
- (33)
- (35)

成田さん:

- ⑩ はい
- ⑪ 書道は長い⁽¹⁹⁾歴史をもっているが
- ⑫ ⁽²⁰⁾古くさいものではない
- ⑬ ⁽²¹⁾実際
- ⑭ たくさんの書道を見ることができる
- ⑮ (あなたの)⁽²²⁾日常生活の中で
- ⑯ ⁽²³⁾例えば
- ⑰ ⁽²⁴⁾レストランのメニューに
- ⑱ びんの⁽²⁵⁾ラベル
- ⑲ そして⁽²⁶⁾広告表示

ジェニー:

- ⑳ 本当?
- ㉑ ⁽²⁷⁾それはおもしろそうだ
- ㉒ あなたは何を⁽²⁸⁾表現したいか
- ㉓ あなたの作品⁽²⁹⁾を通して

成田さん:

- ⑩ 私は表現したい
- ⑪ 自分がどのように感じているかを
- ⑫ 多くの人は⁽³⁰⁾美術や音楽を使う
- ⑬ 自分自身を⁽³¹⁾表現するの
- ⑭ ⁽³²⁾私の場合は
- ⑮ 私が⁽³³⁾どういう人間であるかを表すのは書道である
- ⑯ 私は技術を⁽³⁴⁾向上させたい
- ⑰ そしていつか⁽³⁵⁾海外で展覧会を開きたい

- (20)
- (22)
- (24)
- (26)
- (28)
- (30)
- (32)
- (34)

Data3

1 学期中間テスト対策 英II クラス_____ 番号_____ 名前_____

Part3

Several months later, Shizunai Agricultural High School received wonderful news: ㉞ **【make his / debut / in a race / Yumeroman / to / was going / .】** When the students ①(hear) this, they ②(become) very excited. But they could not expect too much from their first “graduate.” ㉟ **【that / cross / would / he / just prayed / the finish line / safely / .】**

On the day of his debut, the students watched the race together on TV. “Go, Yumeroman! Go!” they shouted. Then a very unexpected thing ③(happen). Yumeroman ④(win)! “He did it! He did it!” They jumped up and ⑤(hug) each other for joy.

The former captain of the riding club ⑥(think) back to the time when they had ⑦(raise) Yumeroman.

“㊱ **【if / that / dreams come true / we do / we can / really understand / our best】** ,” he ⑧(say).

Brian 先生の発音を聞いて書きなさい。

☆①～⑧の動詞を正しい形に変えなさい。

- | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| ① | ② | ③ | ④ |
| ⑤ | ⑥ | ⑦ | ⑧ |

☆㉞を「ユメロマンはレースにデビューすることになった」という意味になるように並び替えなさい。

☆㉟を「彼らは彼が無事にゴールすることをただ祈っていた」という意味になるように並び替えなさい。

☆㊱を「今なら私たちは最善を尽くせば、夢はかなうということを本当に理解することができる」という意味になるように並び替えなさい。

暗唱できた人は先生の前で見ずに全文読むこと。1文ずつでよい。

	㉞	㉟	㊱
チェック者			

Data4

Class _____ No. _____ Name _____

(_____)テストを振り返る。

①テスト前の取り組みについて。

1. 十分できた 2. やれる範囲で頑張った 3. いまいち 4. 不十分だった

②テストの結果について

1. よくできた 2. できた 3. 普通 4. あまりできなかった 5. ショック

③今回のテスト範囲で学んだこと。(単語、文法、文章、内容、その他)

(具体的に：この文章を覚えた。〇〇という単語を覚えた、等)

④次回のテストに向けて改善する点。(具体的に：今回〇〇だったので、次回〇〇にする、等)

(_____)テストを振り返る。

①テスト前の取り組みについて。

1. 十分できた 2. やれる範囲で頑張った 3. いまいち 4. 不十分だった

②テストの結果について

1. よくできた 2. できた 3. 普通 4. あまりできなかった 5. ショック

③今回のテスト範囲で学んだこと。(単語、文法、文章、内容、その他)

(具体的に：この文章を覚えた。〇〇という単語を覚えた、等)

④次回のテストに向けて改善する点。(具体的に：今回〇〇だったので次回〇〇にする、等)

【論文要旨】

本論では意味論が高校の英語教育にどのように生かせるのか考察する。言語習得において暗記は不可欠であるが、暗記のみで理解が伴わないと、実際の場面で使えない(cf. 池上 2006)。文法理解は、暗記が理解を促進し、また理解が暗記を促進するという両面がある。白井(2004)は初期の段階では基本的な文法を理解し、インプットを増やすなかで理解につなげていくというのが一般的な道筋である、とする。教師は複雑な文法事項を単純化して教え、学習者のインプットを増やすことに注意を向ける必要がある。本論では不定詞を取り上げ考察し、その教え方を提案する。さらに実際の高校現場の問題も考慮に入れ、効果的な英語教育をするための取り組みを紹介する。

先行研究では *to* 不定詞の *to* は、前置詞 *to* の終点、方向の意味派生であり、主節の事態が先行し、*to* 不定詞以下の事態が後にくることを表す、とする。また、使役動詞 *make, have, let* は *to* のない不定詞をとり、*force, get, allow* などは *to* をとる。この事実に関しても、*to* の表す方向性の意味派生から、事態の順序が *to* によって表されるとする。しかし単純な時間の順序では考えられない例が存在する。*I am glad to see you.* などである。この文は想定される事態の順序と、実際の解釈において一致しない。*to* 以下で表される事態が先にあつて *I am glad* になる。この事実は単純に *to* が時間の順序を表すと考えることに大きな疑問を抱かせる。

本論では *to* が時間の順序を表す意味はない、とする。*to* 不定詞は「*to* プラス不定詞」であり、先行研究は不定詞自体の意味を無視していると指摘する。不定詞、つまり動詞の原形自体が、「観念、非現実」を表し、*to* 不定詞の *to* は現実と非現実を分けるマーカーとして機能していると結論付ける。使役動詞に関しては、*to* の有無が時間の順序を決めるのではなく、その事態の順序を決めるのは人間の認識である、とする。*to* がある場合は「主節で表される現実の事態」と「不定詞が表す観念的事態」を別々に認識することができるといえる。その結果、解釈として使役の様態(強制、許可等)にも注意がむき、被使役者の行為の結果との間に時間の差を認識しやすくなる。*to* なし不定詞の使役文では現実と観念がひとまとまりに認識され、結果が含意されるといえる。

この研究を教育に生かす方法として、*to* 不定詞の「目的」や「原因」などの用法の意味を覚えさせるのではなく、単に *to* 不定詞の *to* は「距離」を表している、ということを教えることを提案する。さらに *to* 不定詞の *to* は前置詞 *to* からの派生であることから前置詞も不定詞も含め、*to* という語は単に「距離」を表していると教える。それにより多くの用法を覚える負担が減り、新たな用法が出てきた時に意味を推測する手助けにもなる。この提案のサポートとして Tomasello(2003)、大塚(2008)を挙げる。Tomasello(2003)は言語習得におけるインプットの重要性を指摘している。大塚(2008)は日本の英語教育は Rule-based teaching に偏りがちであると述

べている。本論の不定詞を教えるアプローチは **Rule-based teaching** を可能な限り単純化し、インプットを増やすことを重視したものといえる。

高校現場においては高校入学時点で英語嫌いになっている生徒も少なくない。文法事項を単純化し、インプットを増やすことが重要であるといっても、英語嫌いの生徒にとってはインプットを増やすモチベーションを取り戻すことがまず必要になる。効果的な英語教育を考えると、決定的に良いアプローチだと決めることは難しく、生徒の状況に応じてどのようなアプローチがとれるか考えることが重要である。そのための様々なアプローチ法を持つことが教師には必要となる。本論で提案した不定詞の教え方もひとつのアプローチになると考える。