２０２２年度

大学院文学研究科博士課程前期２年の課程入学試験

（　春期・一般選抜　）問題

専門科目Ⅰ　　言語学　　専攻分野

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専門科目Ｉ（　　言語学　　専攻分野）

問題 **I.**　次の文章を読んで下の問いに答えなさい。

PHONOLOGICAL DEVELOPMENT

Babies begin to utter sequences of sounds such as “ba,” “ma,” and “na” around their sixth month of life. This is called **babbling**. Interestingly, those who are going to become native speakers of English and those who will learn Japanese as their mother tongue produce the same sounds when they babble. Also, both hearing and deaf infants go through this stage in a similar way.

Data from fifteen languages show that [p b m t d n k g s h w j] are frequently found in babbling whereas [f v θ ð ʃ ʒ l ɹ ŋ] are not. Babbling increases in frequency until about the twelfth month of life, at which point children begin to produce their first words. Tables 1 and 2 list consonants that English-speaking children are able to produce by ages two and four, respectively.

stops	fricatives	other
p b m	f	w
t d n	s	
k g		

Table 1　Consonants at age two

stops	fricatives	affricates	other
p b m	f v		w
t d n	s z ʃ	tʃ dʒ	l ɹ j
k g ŋ			

Table 2　Consonants at age four

We observe the following tendencies in the two tables as well as in the list of sounds that frequently occur in babbling:

1. Stops are acquired before fricatives, affricates, glides, and liquids.
2. Labials are acquired before sounds having other points of articulation.

Note also that [θ] and [ð] are difficult to articulate and are thus acquired late.

(i)Not only is the sound inventory of children different from that of adults, but their **phonotactic patterns**, the patterns governing how one sound is combined with another, are different as well. A linguist named Neil Smith reports that his son consistently replaced [θ] with [f] (e.g. *thick* → *fick*). In Chapter 11, we saw that [θ] becomes [f] in

Cockney (and [ð], its voiced counterpart, becomes [v]). [θ] and [ð] are systematically replaced by [f] and [v] in African American Vernacular English, too. Consider some examples.

(1) ether → efer　　tooth → toof

brother → brover　　smooth → smoov

The remarkable cross-linguistic similarity suggests that these replacements are not random but governed by a general principle.

English permits a large number of **consonant clusters** such as [sp] (*speak*, *especially*, *grasp*), [str] (*strong*, *astrology*), and [spt] (*gasped*). Children often delete certain sounds to simplify consonant clusters, as illustrated by the examples in (2).

(2) speak → [pɪjk]　　from → [fʌm]

sleep → [sɪjp]　　bump → [bʌp]

In the fast and casual speech of adult speakers, consonants are often dropped at the end of a word, yielding pronunciations such as *didn'wan'us* (< didn't want us) and *the firs'chil'* (< the first child). Deletion of final consonants is frequently observed in children's speech as well.

(3) cat → [kæ]　　bus → [bʌ]

By deleting a final consonant in examples like (3), children produce words that consist of a single open syllable (CV). This is the most common syllable pattern of human language.

MORPHOLOGICAL DEVELOPMENT

In Chapter 3, we examined how morphemes are put together to form words. When English-speaking children begin to produce their first words, these words seem to have no internal structure. They are mostly **monomorphemic**.

(4) [dɑ] "dog"　　[mɑmɪ] "mommy"

[ʃuw] "shoe"　　[nejm] "name"

Bound morphemes are absent, and the child's entire vocabulary consists of free morphemes. As we know, English has many irregular noun and verb forms.

(5)

Irregular Nouns		Irregular Verbs	
singular	plural	present	past
deer	deer	put	put
wife	wives	bring	brought
man	men	run	ran
datum	data	go	went

It is reported that children produce the correct irregular forms (*men*, *went*, etc.) at this stage, treating them as monomorphemic words. Later, when they realize that *men* consists of the two morphemes "man" and "PLURAL" and that *went* consists of the two morphemes "go" and "PAST," they start producing **mans* and **goed* by adding *-s* to *man* and *-ed* to *go*. In other words, children at this second stage generalize the regular plural ending *-s* and the regular past ending *-ed* even to words which have irregular inflections in adult language. This process, further illustrated in (6), is called (ii)overgeneralization.

(6) baddest (worst) shelfs (shelves)

freezed (frozen) teared (tore)

After a period characterized by overgeneralization of the rules, children gradually learn the exceptions to those rules and begin to use the adult forms again—but this time, analyzing them as **bimorphemic**, or containing two morphemes.

So far we have focused on the development of inflectional endings. How do children acquire derivational affixes? The word *teacher* consists of the base verb *teach* and the suffix *-er*, and the word *computer* is made up of the base verb *compute* and the suffix *-er*. Both cases of suffixation involve a change of category (verb → noun). Both also involve a change of meaning, but not in the same way. *Teacher* means 'person who teaches', while *computer* means 'machine that computes'. The *-er* of *teacher* is called **agentive** *-er*, the *-er* of *computer* **instrumental** *-er*. In child language, agentive *-er* emerges earlier than instrumental *-er*. **Productivity** and **semantic transparency** seem to determine the order of acquisition. Agentive *-er* may be added to any verb V to form a derived noun meaning 'person who Vs'; it is productive and semantically transparent. Instrumental *-er* is not as productive and may not be added to every verb.

SYNTACTIC DEVELOPMENT

When infants produce their first words, they utter these words to convey complex messages that would be expressed by a whole sentence in adult speech. Such utterances are called **holophrases**. Every child goes through this **one-word stage**. The words of this stage are used to perform various speech acts such as asserting ([dɑ] "There is a dog." or "I saw a dog."), ordering ([now] "Don't do that."), and expressing a desire ([bʌʔ] "I want up.").

Around the age of eighteen months, children begin to produce two-word utterances like those in (7). Since the two words are simply placed side by side, their meaning must be guessed from the context in which they are used.

(7) Hit doggie. (probable meaning: "I hit the doggie.")

Mommy water. (probable meaning: "Mommy is drinking water.")

Daddy sock. (probable meaning: "Daddy's socks")

Baby chair. (probable meaning: "The baby is sitting in the chair.")

Since the utterances of the **two-word stage** lack inflectional suffixes, it is hard to tell whether or not children at this stage have acquired syntactic categories.

After the two-word stage, children begin to produce more complicated utterances, putting several words together.

(8) What that?

Daddy like book.

He play little tune.

Man ride bus today.

Me wanna show Mommy.

The utterances of this period look like "telegrams" in that they lack **function words** (determiners, prepositions, auxiliary verbs), words that show the relationships between the lexical words of a phrase or a sentence. This **telegraphic stage** lasts until the age of about three, when function words begin to emerge. As is clear from the examples in (8), children at this stage are able to form hierarchical structures like the ones produced by the adult grammar. It is generally believed that at this stage they possess syntactic categories and rules of sentence formation.

Meanwhile, children learn more complex "rules" of grammar, such as the *wh*-movement and inversion that apply in question formation. While adult language requires the application of both of these rules to produce questions like *Where do you go?* and *What can he play?*, the first questions produced by children tend to look like *Where you go?* and *What he can play?* Here, (iii)*wh*-movement has applied without inversion, a possibility that, in adult English, can appear only in **embedded questions** such as *I wonder what he can play*. Curiously, the opposite case of inversion without *wh*-movement does not seem to occur. That is, children do not produce questions like *Do you go where?* or *Can you play what.* In some sense, inversion seems to be more complicated, more difficult for children, than *wh*-movement.

SEMANTIC AND LEXICAL DEVELOPMENT

How do children acquire the meanings of words? Just as children make morphological errors as a result of overgeneralization, they may overextend (or underextend) the meanings of words at early stages of their linguistic development. **Overextension** occurs when children use a word for things to which it does not actually refer in adult language. For example, *bow-wow* may be used not only for dogs but also for all kinds of four-legged animals, and *daddy* may be used not just for the child's father, but for all men. **Underextension** occurs when a word is used for a narrower range of things than it actually designates. For example, a child may say *car* only when referring to his toy car, and not when referring to actual automobiles.

Since semantic development is closely tied up with general intellectual and cognitive development, it is natural to hypothesize that children master more general and basic words at earlier stages than complex and special words ((iv)the **complexity hypothesis**). If we compare the meanings of the two prepositions *to* and *into*, for example, we can see that the former is more basic than the latter. First, *to* is morphologically simpler than *into*. Second, *to* is less complex semantically, representing simply a goal or point of arrival, while *into* represents arrival at the inside of some three-dimensional space. Because of these differences, *into* takes more time for children to acquire than *to*. *Out of* is even more difficult than *into* because, although these two prepositions share the feature of three-dimensional space, *out of* also involves a "negative" feature which *into* lacks. If you go into a room, you are in the room. In contrast, if you go

out of a room, you're not in the room any longer. The negative feature seems to be responsible for the relatively late acquisition of *out of*.

The complexity hypothesis also accounts for the relative order of acquisition of different senses of a single word. In Chapter 4, we saw that the concrete or physical meaning of a word (for example, *The rock fell*) can be metaphorically extended to an abstract, non-physical meaning (*His spirits fell*). If the abstract meaning really is an extension of the physical meaning, we have a natural explanation for the fact that children acquire the physical meaning first. Likewise, adjectives like *long* and *short*, whose concrete meaning refers to the spatial length of an object (*a long/short pencil*), are extended to the more abstract notion of temporal length, as in *a long/short time*. Because of this semantic difference, the spatial meanings are acquired earlier than the temporal meanings.

To sum up, we have seen that children acquire their first language through the following steps.

1. Babbling: up to about 10 months
2. One-word stage: one year to one year and a half
3. Two-word stage: one year and a half
4. Telegraphic stage (lexical words): around 3 years
5. Acquisition of function words, overgeneralization: 3 to 4 years
6. Adult grammar: about 5 years

(Kageyama, T., de Chene, B., Hibiya, J., Tatsuki, D. (2004). *First Steps in English Linguistics.* 2nd Edition. Kurosio Publishers より一部改変)

問（1） 下線部(i)を和訳しなさい。

問（2） 下線部(ii)の overgeneralization とは何か、本文に即して簡潔に説明しなさい。

問（3） 下線部(iii)を和訳しなさい。

問（4） 下線部(iv)の the complexity hypothesis とは何か、本文に即して具体例を挙げながら 200 字程度で説明しなさい。

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問題 II.　「令和 4 年 3 月 3 日」を通常の速度で発話した場合の発音を IPA で表記しなさい。

問題 III.　次の 10 語の中から 5 語を選び，和訳した上で簡潔に説明しなさい。

1．allomorph　2．argument structure　3．coordination　4．dative alternation

5．endocentric compound　6．event-related potential　7．indirect speech act

8．meronymy　9．pitch accent　10．tense

【問題 I、問題 II、問題 III に対する解答は次頁以降にまとめて記すこと】

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