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英文法における「段階性」について

Gradience in English Grammar

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Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1. The general outline

In grammatical relationships, there are instances where it is difficult to decide whether or not a grammatical category should be included in the given parts of speech. Of course, there are words which are prototypically classified into the given word classes or parts of speech. But there are several difficult cases when they are classified into parts of speech. When we discuss these phenomena, the word, 'gradience' can be used to recognize that there are various cases from prototypical words in a grammatical category to the peripheries.

Bolinger (1961) discusses the 'gradience' phenomena, and asserts that linguistic phenomena are not 'all-or-none' but 'more-or-less' ones. That is, Bolinger asserts that with respect to linguistic phenomena, words cannot be classified into category 'A' or category 'B', and thus we should regard a linguistic phenomenon as category 'A'-like or category 'B'-like.

In addition to Bolinger's assertion, several linguists also discuss or emphasize the 'gradience' situations. 'Cline' is the technical term which is mainly used by Halliday, who studies 'functional grammar'. The term 'serial relationship' is used by Quirk, who studies 'descriptive grammar'. The term 'non-discreteness or squish' is used by Ross, who studies 'transformational grammar'.

Cognitive linguists often use the terms 'prototype', 'centre', and 'periphery', and these are similar to the notion of 'gradience' . This is because they recognize that a word cannot be precisely classified into the given class or the word class. For example, let us imagine that there are several animals such as sparrows, penguins, and bats. When we take account of the classification of them, bats are marginal or peripheral in the bird

class. Penguins are an example in between. This is an example of the bird category, and in this case, we can find that there is fuzzy 'gradience' in bird classes.

In this connection, the terms 'centre' and 'periphery' are not ideas attributed to cognitive linguists. According to Akimoto (1985: 154), the Prague School has already shown the ideas before cognitive linguists used them. This is an impressive indication since we sometimes overlook this fact.

In Aarts (2007), Aarts discusses that there are two types of 'gradience'. They are 'Subsective Gradience' ('SG') and 'Intersective Gradience' ('IG'). The former (= 'Subsective Gradience') is the idea where we recognize 'gradience' within a word class or a part of speech. On the other hand, the latter (= 'Intersective Gradience') is the idea where we recognize 'gradience' between word classes or parts of speech.

SG is intra-categorial in nature, and allows for prototypes, that is, for members of a class to display the properties of that class to varying degrees. IG is an inter-categorial phenomenon which is characterized by two form classes converging on each other.

Aarts (2007:241-242)

In my view, the notion of 'gradience' is one where we recognize continuity within a word class or between parts of speech. Aarts (2007:236) discusses 'gradience' within and between the categories of nouns, verbs, and adjectives, and Aarts uses a diagram which represents the 'gradience' relationships among them (Cf. ibid.: 236-7). The diagram seems to be the core material when discussing 'gradience' in his view. Furthermore, Aarts uses several diagrams to express the 'gradience' relationships among other word classes. As a result, he uses several diagrams (Cf. Aarts, 2007: 235-240) to denote 'gradience' within (= 'SG') and between (= 'IG') the word classes or the categories of

'noun', 'verb', 'determinate', 'adjective', 'preposition', 'complementizer', 'adverb', and 'coordinator'. As mentioned above, the core feature in his diagrams is the continuous triangle composed of 'verb', 'adjective' and 'noun' (Cf. Aarts, 2007: 235-236). Among them, the central part of his diagrams is adjectives. This is because in his view, adjectives are thought to be the word class which has some intersective relationships on 'gradience' among many word classes or parts of speech. When we discuss the 'gradience' line in Aarts' diagram (Cf. Aarts, 2007: 239), we find out that Aarts recognizes and allows for 'gradience' from adverbs through adjectives to verbs, especially based on adjectives, and moreover, he also does so among verbs, adjectives, and prepositions. On the other hand, Aarts does not allow for or does not set up 'gradience' relationships between prepositions and adverbs. Instead, Aarts adopts cooridinate conjunctions to insert between prepositions and adverbs so that 'gradience' relationships from adverbs to prepositions might work, especially based on adjectives.

In contrast, in this dissertation, I will discuss 'gradience' relationships among adverbs, prepositions and adjectives, based on the functions or characteristics of verbs with respect to the notion of 'transitivity' or 'affectedness', based on verbs. When we recognize 'gradience' phenomena, it is sometimes difficult or problematic to use the specific word classes such as adverbs and prepositions when discussing 'gradience' in my view. This is because some words can spread over both word classes. But when we take account of the varieties of prepositions, we can recognize the 'gradience' line between adverbs and prepositions, and verify it through using the corpus approach (Cf. Chapter 4).

Before closing this section, I briefly introduce the contents of this dissertation, as given below.

Chapter 1 is the general outline of my thesis. In Chapter 1, I briefly describe what

the aim of my thesis is, how Chapters 1 through 7 are arranged, and what the theoretical or methodological frameworks are.

Chapter 2 surveys previous studies about 'gradience'. 'Gradience' has been discussed from the points of view of 'semantics', 'transformational grammar', and 'descriptive grammar'. In various aspects of data from the English language, we can recognize 'gradience'.

Chapter 3 discusses or deals with the aspects of 'transitivity' of verbs. There are several attitudes towards the notion of 'transitivity', but in this dissertation, I mainly use an approach from the semantic points of view. For example, Dixon (2005) discusses 'transitivity' in relation with 'causatives'. On the other hand, Hopper and Thompson (1980) use a diagram or a table to show the criteria about how high or low the 'transitivity' of a verb is. As I described above, concerning the discussions of 'transitivity', I used a semantic approach. This is because the notion of 'affectedness' of the action, which is mainly used by Bolinger, is based on 'transitivity' and the notion of 'affectedness' is concerned with 'semantics'. Bolinger's approach is the prototypical semantic approach.

Chapter 4 describes 'gradience' between adverbs and prepositions. The adverbs and prepositions we are concerned with in this chapter are not genuine adverbs and prepositions, but rather adverbial prepositions and central or prototypical prepositions. When 'gradience' between adverbial prepositions and prototypical prepositions is discussed, the relationships between 'transitivity' and 'passivisation' and those between 'passivisation' and 'idiomaticity' are taken into consideration. As a result, in Chapter 4, we find out that the three notions given above have some proportional relationships, particularly from the semantic point of view.

Chapter 5 explores 'gradience' between prepositions and adjectives. In Aarts (2007:

157-158, 219), Aarts quotes the arguments in Anderson (1997: 74 f.) and shows 'gradience' between prepositions and adjectives. For example, there is 'gradience' between them, such as this, 'close' (adjective-like) > 'near' > 'like' > 'worth' > 'at' (preposition-like). In this 'gradience' scale, the symbol '>' means that the left side of the symbol '>' is higher than the right side on the adjectival 'gradience' scale. For example, the word 'close' is more adjectival than the word 'near'. In contrast, the word 'at' is the most prototypical preposition, and the word 'at' is more prepositional than the word 'worth'. In Anderson (1997: 74 f.), Anderson uses a kind of 'functor' to quantify the adjectival degrees among words. The 'functors' in Anderson are given below:

{P : N}	{(P : N) ; }	{(P : N) :}	{; (P : N)}	{ }
4	3	2	1	0
close	near	like	worth	at
due				

Anderson (1997: 74)

Chapter 6 describes 'gradience' between adjectives and verbs. I do not deal with genuine adjectives. In this chapter, the apparent past-participles are dealt with as materials for an analysis of 'gradience'. Even if it is believed that a sentence is regarded as a completely perfect passive sentence from the syntactic perspective of 'descriptive grammar', we sometimes find that there are some cases which have 'gradience' in 'passivisation' from semantic points of view. That is, there is 'gradience' from the prototypical passive sentences to the peripheries where the passive sentences in question do not have verb-like (verbal) features but rather do have adjective-like (adjectival) ones. In Chapter 6, firstly, we show how the 'gradience' of the apparent past-participles which have the '-ed' or '-en' ending has been treated in previous studies.

Secondly, we pick up these apparent past-participles which have the '-ed' or '-en' ending which includes irregular conjugation from the entries of the English-English dictionary. Thirdly, we judge whether these words in the dictionary are verbal or adjectival, based on criteria which are picked out from the previous studies or which are set by myself. And finally, we will try to find out what kind of properties there are among the selected words, which have either the verbal or adjectival properties from the semantic point of view.

Chapter 7 overviews the findings in chapters 4 through 6. Chapter 8 presents the concluding remarks of my thesis.

1.2. The theoretical framework

As is remarked briefly in section 1.1., there are several aspects of 'gradience', and many linguists discuss it in their own ways. In 'transformational grammar', 'descriptive grammar', 'cognitive grammar', and so on, 'gradience' phenomena are dealt with in different ways. I will show the details in Chapter 2.

When 'gradience' relationships are discussed in this dissertation, I mainly use a semantic approach, but syntactic views are necessary in order to grasp some aspects of 'gradience', because when I decide whether or not a word satisfies a criterion about any word classes, syntactic tests should be needed.

Furthermore, corpus researches are needed, too. They are necessary for the study of 'gradience' in prepositions, whose study is based on the idioms 'intransitive verb + preposition' (Cf. Chapter 4). When discussing it, I use three key terms such as 'transitivity', 'passivisation', and 'idiomaticity'. When the degrees of 'passivisation' or 'idiomaticity' are discussed, corpus data are useful. In particular, the BNC (= British

National Corpus) is used in my research. In addition to the corpus research, when we discuss the notion of 'transitivity', we mainly use the semantic point of view.

Chapter 4 and Chapter 6 are the main parts of my thesis. Chapter 4 and Chapter 6 include the surveys which use dictionaries like an idiom dictionary and the English-English dictionary. This is because in my research, the areas into which I inquire need to be limited so that conclusions based on demonstrative ways might be extracted.

As remarked above, when several grammatical judgements have to be made according to the criteria, research using the corpus data is required. Of course, when it is a little bit difficult to judge or make a decision, informant checks are sometimes required when they are necessary.

Chapter 2 Previous studies of 'gradience'

2.1. Introduction

As stated in Chapter 1, the notion of 'gradience' is discussed in several disciplines of linguistics such as 'semantics', 'transformational grammar', and 'descriptive grammar'. Of course, the technical terms which mean 'gradience' vary from linguist to linguist such as 'fuzzy', 'cline', 'serial relationships' and so on.

Both in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004) and Aarts (2007), it is pointed out that the idea of 'gradience' is recognized not only in linguistics but also in philosophy. The original idea dates back to the ancient Greeks, and Aristotle used the notion of 'categories' to show that 'number and language are discrete'.

Hence number is one of the discrete quantities. Similarly, language also is one of the discrete quantities (that language is a quantity is evident, since it is measured by long and short syllables; I knew here language that is *spoken*).

Aristotle, *Categories and De Interpretatione,* reprinted and included in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004: 31)

In contrast, a philosopher, Bertrand Russell, uses the term 'vagueness' to point out that all languages are vague and therefore his (= Russell's) language is also vague. Russell describes 'vagueness' of words as given below:

Baldness is a vague conception; some men are certainly bald, some are certainly not bald, while between them there are men of whom it is not true to say they must either be bald or not bald.

Russell, '*Vagueness*', reprinted and included in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004: 35-36)

Russell's assertion given above is not only the idea of 'vaguenes' but also the idea of 'gradience'. That is, Russell asserts that a word cannot be attributed to both extremities. Russell's idea is close to Bolinger's notion (Cf. section 2.2.1.). How does Aarts think of Russell's idea about 'vagueness' of language?

Now what about language? Could it be the case that vagueness in grammar, here conceived of as grammatical vagueness, is also simply not part of the architecture of the system of language, but merely a property of the way that we perceive and describe it, that is, merely a property of our *representation* of the mental system of grammar? I would like to suggest that the answer to his question should be affirmative in many cases. Aarts (2007: 202)

Aarts (2007: 202) uses the examples of two glasses of water. One contains pure water, but the other contains water with typhoid bacilli. Aarts points out that if we move closer to the object by using a microscope, we can find the difference between the two glasses of water. In the same way, in linguistic phenomena, even though there are some similar structures or expressions, there may be differences among them.

(1) John arrived before the last speech.

(2) John arrived before the last speech ended.

(3) John arrived before (hand)

Aarts (2007: 204)

The word 'before' in the three sentences given above apparently seems to be the same, but if we look closely, the word 'before' has different parts of speech. (1) is the function of preposition, (2) is conjunction, (3) is adverb. Aarts, in particular, recognizes the notion of 'vagueness', and concerning the notion of 'vagueness' what is called 'looking more closely' in a Russellian fashion leads to different points. According to Aarts, when looking at linguistic phenomena more closely, we can find not only the 'sameness' but also the 'difference'. In other words, when we take account of linguistic phenomena, looking at both 'difference' and 'sameness' at the same time, causes 'vagueness'.

As an introduction of Chapter 2, I introduced the idea of 'vagueness' in a Russellian way and showed that the notion of 'vagueness' led to the idea of 'gradience'.

2.2. Types of 'gradience'

2.2.1. 'Gradience' (Bolinger, D. L., 1961)

Bolinger is the person who uses the term 'gradience' to show that there are continuous or ambiguous aspects in linguistic phenomena.

… the question is not whether there are such things as continuous phenomena in parts of human behavior that lie close to linguistics – many would grant that there are – but whether such phenomena should be regarded as the object of linguistic study.

Bolinger (1961), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004: 312-313)

Bolinger refers to intonation and he recognizes that it is concerned with the notion of 'gradience'. The field of his study is what Bolinger calls microlinguistics.

What I want to consider is whether there are continuous phenomena permeating the very core of micro - micro - linguistics, whether microlinguists have played with them without realizing the nature of the stuff, fitting round pegs into square holes.

Bolinger (1961), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004:313)

Bolinger notes the notion of a linguist concerning the matter of phonetics as given below:

There is a further phonemic degree of stress . . . limited to superimposed usage. Phonetically it is EXTRA STRONG, and has the meaning of EMPHASIS, or exclamation . . . . There are an infinite variety of degrees of exclamatory stress. Rather than forming separate contrasting elements, with separate meanings, however, they are in GRADATION.

Bolinger (1961), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004: 313)

Phonetically, when the meaning of a word or a phrase is emphasized or exclaimed, there appears 'gradience' in the stress pattern, and Bolinger agrees with the idea.

Moreover, Bolinger recognizes that there appears 'ambiguity' when a word is used more abstractly, that is, when a word is used as a higher categorized class. Bolinger lists some examples which show ambiguous examples of words both in Chinese and English. When in Chinese, the word '*ren*' is used, it means both the words 'man' and 'woman' in English. Thus, the word '*ren*' in Chinese is more general than the words 'man' and 'woman' in English. According to Bolinger, the same is true in the English words such as these: 'colored' and 'friend'. The word 'colored' is more general than the word 'brown' or 'red'. That is, when we use the word 'colored' in English, we dare not to decide whether

the color of objects or people is either 'brown' or 'red'. The word 'friend' has the same characteristic. When we use the word 'friend' in English, we do not decide both whether the thing described by word 'friend' is either male or female and whether the thing described by word 'friend' is young or old. In other words, the word 'friend' has 'generality'. Bolinger recognizes that 'generality' is to be distinguished from 'ambiguity', but that at the same time, 'generality' causes 'ambiguity', which is given or shown in the words above, '*ren*', '*colored*', or '*friend*'. 'Generality' seems to be similar to the notion of 'hypernym'. We cannot decide whether or not a superordinate concept such as '*ren*' or '*friend*' dictates either 'men' or 'women'. In this situation, the fact that we cannot decide the difference between '*men*' and '*women*' causes 'ambiguity'.

In addition, Bolinger recognizes that answers to a question seem to have 'generality', but that, at the same time, they tend to have 'ambiguity'. In his remark, the meaning of 'generality' seems to be closer to the notion of 'all - or - none' - like. This is because the answers to a question have the similar dichotomic tendency. As an informant test, Bolinger used the following question: "Well, my assignment's almost done. You finish yours?" – "No, I . . . n't.":

This was submitted in written form to 53 persons who were instructed to fill the blank with whatever "according to your quick first impression belongs there". The results showed *have* 21, *did* 23, one undecided between *have* and *did*, and eight scattered among *shan't*, *couldn't*, *won't*, *wouldn't*, and *ain't*.

Bolinger (1961), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004: 316)

From the result of Bolinger's test, we find that there seems to be a randomness or several varieties, but, that at the same time, there appears 'generality'. It is true that

most examinees tend to answer the question as given above, using the words '*have*' and '*did*', but there are several candidates towards the question. Then we can say that '*have*' and '*did*' are superordinate concepts and thus they show 'generality'. Though the notion of 'generality' or 'ambiguity' should be taken differently, the notion of 'ambiguity' is involved when we try to generalize an object or a person. The result as given above somewhat denies the 'all - or - none' or dichotomic attitude.

2.2.2. 'Serial Relationships' (Quirk, R., 1965: 205-217)

Quirk (1965) distinguishes the three types of characteristics given below:

(a) 'manifested' constituent features
(b) 'potential' constituent features
(c) 'transformational' features

The characteristic (a) comprises the features we can recognize in a text, the characteristic (b) comprises the ones which we can grasp by way of enlarging and comparing, and the characteristic (c) comprises the covert ones which can be grasped through some kind of transformation.

Quirk introduced the sentence below and explained the relationships among the characteristics (a), (b), and (c) given above:

They disapproved of *his running after Mary* and *his liking for Mary.*

Quirk (1965), reprinted in Aarts et al. (eds.) (2004: 327)

Concerning the characteristic (a), the structure in a sentence is as follows: 'deictic + head + post-modifier' such as 'his' (= deictic), 'running' (= head), and 'after Mary' (= post-modifier) and 'his' (= deictic), 'liking' (= head), and 'for Mary' (= post-modifier). Regarding the characteristic (b), 'his running after Mary' in the sentence can be replaced by 'him running after Mary', but 'his liking for Mary' in the sentence cannot be replaced by 'him liking for Mary'. Moreover, 'his running after Mary' in the sentence can be enlarged into 'his eagerly running after Mary', but 'his liking for Mary' in the sentence cannot be enlarged into 'his eagerly liking for Mary'. Furthermore, 'his running after Mary' in the sentence cannot be replaced by 'his runnings after Mary' and 'his liking for Mary' in the sentence also cannot be replaced by 'his likings for Mary'. Concerning the characteristic (c), regular transformational process is discussed. In the phrase, 'his running after Mary' can be said to be based on 'he runs after Mary', but 'his liking for Mary' cannot be said to be based on 'he likes for Mary'.

Quirk uses three sentences given below to show either how much they are similar or how much they are different:

(1) She watched the man.

(2) She listened to the man.

(3) She stood near the man.

Quirk (1965), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004: 329)

Quirk also uses a diagram or a table given below to show either the scale of similarity or difference:

		γ_1
	β_1	γ_2
α	β_2	γ_3

Quirk (1965), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004: 329)

The lowest level of similarity, that is, the γ-level in the table above, can be classified into three levels, γ_1, γ_2, and γ_3. The level γ_1 does not allow for prepositions. The level γ_2 does not allow for shortened or abbreviated forms such as 'She listened to' in the sentence (2), but, in contrast, 'She watched' in the sentence (1) and 'She stood near' in the sentence (3) can be allowed. Regarding the level γ_3, there is a difference between 'to' and 'near'. That is, 'near' in the sentence (3) can be modified by 'very'. In addition, regarding the levels of β, there is a difference between β_1 and β_2. In the level β_1, the passive sentence of the sentence (1), namely, 'The man was watched' can be allowed, but the passive sentence of the sentence (2), namely, 'The man was listened to' cannot be allowed. How does Quirk locate or explain the level of α? The status of the level of α is the common characteristics among three sentences given above. When the English clause structure can be regarded as an abstract form 'SVX', 'X' means what Quirk calls 'postverbal piece'. For example, in the sentence form such as 'SVC' or 'SVA' ('C' is the complement piece and 'A' is the adverbial piece.), 'C' or 'A' is attributed to 'X'. Then, in three sentences given above, 'the man', 'to the man' and 'near the man' are attributed to 'X'.

Quirk uses the term, 'delicacy' to show the degree of identity between the sequences. In this connection, Quirk explains that the notion of 'delicacy' is used by M.A.K. Halliday. In particular, Quirk uses the notion of 'delicacy' in the sense such that

it indicates how many features several sentences have in common. That is, the level of α has more common features than the level of β_1 and β_2, and then, the level of α is of a more general character than the level of β_1 and β_2. In this situation, we can recognize 'gradience' from the level of α to that of γ.

Quirk tries to confirm how much 'gradience' or 'delicacy' works in several English sentences.

1 He X_1 and X_2 (to) come every day.

2 He X to come every day

3 Did he X to come every day?

4 He would to X to come every day

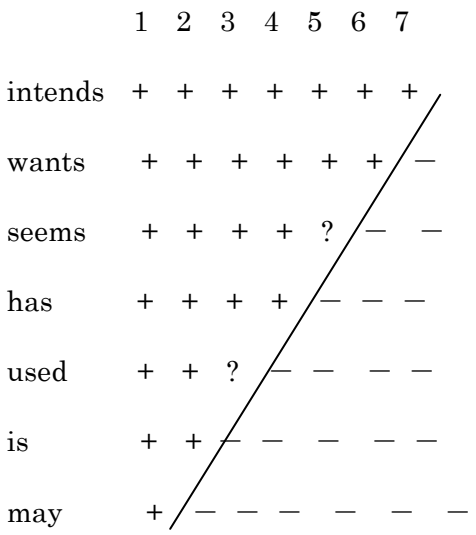
5 He X that

6 He X us to come every day

7 He X that we should come every day

Quirk (1965), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (2004: 330-331)

In the sentence 5, 'that' is 'demonstrative', and in the sentence 7, 'that' is 'conjunction'. Quirk uses several verbs or modal auxiliary verbs to substitute for X in the sentences given above. When seven verbs or modal auxiliary verbs are substituted for X, the applicability of the seven sentences is tested. When a verb or an auxiliary verb is accepted in a sentence, a positive symbol such as '+' is marked in the table given below. Likewise, when a verb or an auxiliary verb is not accepted in a sentence, a negative symbol such as '—' is marked. The symbol '?' is in between. The numbers from 1 to 7 in the table given below are the numbers of model sentences which include the parameter 'X'.



Quirk (1965), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004: 331)

As a result, the verb 'intends' in the table given above is the most widely applicable in the seven sentences. From the result of the analysis in Quirk, we can recognize 'gradience' among three verbs. That is, 'gradience' or what Halliday calls 'delicacy' sequence is located given below:

'intends' > 'wants' > 'seems' > 'has' > 'used' > 'is' > 'may'

The symbol '>' means that the left word is more widely applicable than the right one in Quirk's matrix. Judging from the matrix, the more prototypical the verbs are, the more widely applicable they are in the given sentences. In contrast, the more prototypical the auxiliary verbs are, the less applicable they are in them.

Furthermore, Quirk uses the term 'serial relationships' to demonstrate that the subclasses of verbs taking 'factive' or 'parafactive' complements have similar structure by using the structure like this: 'S + BE + said to be + C (as in He was said to be foolish)'.

1 They V so.

2 They V that he is Adj.

3 It is Ved that he is Adj.

4 They V him to be Adj.

5 He is Ved to be Adj.

6 They V him Adj.

7 He is Ved Adj.

8 They V him N. (where *N* and *him* are coreferential)

Quirk (1965), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004: 333)

Quirk chooses thirteen verbs which are, more or less, thought to be subclasses of the verbs 'say' and 'think'. Quirk uses the eight parameters given above, applies the verbs to the parameters, and tries to see how well the verbs work in the parameters. The results are given below:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
pretend	+	+	+	?	−	−	−	−
feel	?	+	+	+	+	?	−	−
say	+	+	+	−	+	−	−	−
know	−	+	+	+	+	−	−	−
find	−	+	+	?	+	+	?	+
think	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
declare	−	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

regard	−	−	?	?	?	+	?	?
like	−	−	+	+	−	?	−	−
persuade	−	−	−	+	+	−	−	−
make	−	−	−	−	+	+	+	+
call	−	−	−	−	−	+	+	+
elect	−	−	−	−	−	−	−	+

Quirk (1965), reprinted in Aarts *et al.*(eds.) (2004: 333)

In Quirk's research, we can find several facts. First, 'think' is the most widely applicable verb in the parameters given above. Secondly, in Quirk's matrix, passive forms have the important factors. The parameter 4, namely, 'They V him to be Adj.' can be transformed into the parameter 5, namely, 'He is Ved to be Adj.'. Particularly, Quirk takes a serious view of the structure 'S + BE + said to be + C', and then focuses on the relationship between the parameter 4 and the parameter 5. In Quirk's matrix, the verbs 'pretend', 'like', 'call' and 'elect' do not take the parameter 5 (Cf. *He is liked to be careful.). On the other hand, the verbs 'say', 'make', and 'find' have their passive form, which indicates the parameter 5, but they do not have their active form, which indicates the parameter 4 (Cf. *They say / make / ? find him to be careful.). Moreover, it is important that the number of the verbs which satisfy the parameter 5 is almost twice as many as the number of the verbs which satisfy the parameter 4. Thirdly, the verbs 'say', 'make', and 'find' have something in common (= parameter 5) in the matrix above. In contrast, the verb 'regard' has many '?' marks in the matrix and then it concerns the lack of stability. The verb 'regard' is mainly accompanied by the preposition 'as'.

We will discuss the notion of 'transitivity' in Chapter 3 and the notion of 'passivisation' mainly in Chapter 4, but if we recognize the parallel relationship

between ‘transitivity’ and ‘pasivisation’, the more criteria from 1 to 8 given above thirteen verbs in the matrix take, the higher ‘transitivity’ or ‘passivisation’ becomes.

‘think’ > ‘declare’ > ‘find’ > ‘feel’, ‘say’, ‘know’, ‘make’ > ‘pretend’, ‘call’ > ‘like’ > ‘regard’, ‘elect’

This is a kind of ‘gradience’ among verbs.

At all events, we can find out that there are some connections or continuities in the verbs of the matrix. These connections or continuities are what Quirk calls ‘serial relationships’. Through Quirk’s term ‘serial relationships’, Quirk emphasizes that there appear similarities and differences, and owing to ‘serial relationships’, we can use the verbs to describe many facts or phenomena in the world dynamically. ‘Gradience’ appears by way of analyzing the similarities or the differences in phenomena in the world, and ‘gradience’ can be found out in, for example, what Quirk, a descriptive linguist, calls ‘serial relationships’.

2.2.3. ‘Nouniness’ (Ross, J. R., 1973b: 137-257)

Ross is a linguist working in ‘transformational grammar’. Generally speaking, in ‘transformational grammar’, the idea of ‘gradience’ seems to be treated lightly. Nonetheless, Ross recognizes an idea similar to ‘gradience’. Of course, Ross does not use the term ‘gradience’ mainly, but rather uses the term ‘squish’.

In traditional grammar, the categories such as verb, adjective, and noun were thought to be the independent or separated word classes. This is the notion of ‘discrete’ grammar. In contrast, Ross argues for the notion of ‘non-discrete’ grammar and shows

that there is a continuous relationship, what Ross calls a linear *squish*, or quasi-continuous hierarchy given below:

Verb > Present participle > *Adjective* > Preposition > Adjective Noun (e.g. *fun*) > *Noun*

Ross (1973b), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004: 351)

This is 'gradience' from verbs to nouns, what Ross calls 'most' to verbs, 'less' to adjectives, and 'least' to nouns.

Ross also demonstrates the existence of a similar squish, that is, the 'nouniness squish'.

that > *for to* > Q > *Acc Ing* > *Poss Ing* > Action Nominal > Derived Nominal > Noun

Ross (1973b), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004: 351)

'Squish' given above involves abbreviations for types of complements, and Ross explains and exemplifies it like this:

a. *that* = *that*-clauses (*that Max gave the letters to Frieda*)
b. *for to* = *for* NP *to* V X (*for Max to have given the letters to Frieda*)
c. Q = embedded questions (*how willingly Max gave the letters to Frieda*)
d. *Acc Ing* = [NP_{+Acc}] V + *ing* X (*Max giving the letters to Frieda*)
e. *Poss Ing* = NP'*s* V + *ing* X (*Max's giving the letters to Frieda*)
f. Action Nominal ({*Max's the*} *giving of the letters to Frieda*)

g. Derived Nominal ({*Max's* / *the*} *gift of the letters to Frieda*)

h. Noun (*spatula*)

Ross (1973b), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004: 351)

Moreover, Ross examines how much what kinds of determiners require nouns and shows a hierarchy of 'noun-requiringness' of determiners given below:

NP's >? {this / that} > {no / some / much / little} > {the / prior / occasional / frequent} > {careful / reluctant / etc.} > {good / bad} >? {other / mere}

Ross (1973b), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004: 373)

In Ross's hierarchy, the left side of the symbol '>' given above the hierarchy appears in more areas of the contexts than the right one. It is shown whether or not there is correspondence between the criteria from 'a' to 'h' given above and the modifiers in the 'squish' given above in Ross (1973b), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004: 373-376).

Furthermore, Ross is concerned with the idiomatic expressions and shows 'fake NP' squish.

tack > {it weather / _ _ be / headway} > {it sentential / there} > {it weather / _ _ V / tabs}

Ross (1973b), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004: 358)

In Ross (1973), idiomatic expressions such as 'take a track', 'weather it with copular predicate and make headway', 'sentential it and there', and 'weather it with verbs and keeps tabs on' are dealt with. The degrees of 'nouniness' in the idiomatic expressions given above are given below:

tack > headway > there > tabs

The left of the symbol '>' has more 'nouniness' than the right one. Similar research is given by Ross (1973a). By way of using 'left dislocation', 'tough movement', and 'tag formation', Ross tries to demonstrate the degrees of 'noun-phrasiness'. The degrees of 'nouniness squish' are given below:

	LEFT DISLOCATION	TOUGH MOVEMENT	TAG FORMATION
Harpo	ok	ok	ok
Headway	*	?	ok
There	*	*	ok
Tabs	*	*	?

Ross (1973a)

In any event, Ross does not allow for 'discrete' grammar, though Ross is a linguist using 'transformational grammar', and Ross tries to shift into the 'non-discrete' one by way of using 'nouniness squish'.

2.2.4. 'The Coordination – Subordination Gradient' (Quirk *et al.*, 1985 : sections 13.6-13.9)

In section 2.2.2. of my thesis, I described that Quirk (1965) recognizes 'gradience' in the structure of 'S + BE + said to be + C'. Quirk examines the subclasses of the verb 'say' in relation to other subclasses of verbs taking 'factive' or 'parafactive' complements

by using eight parameters (Cf. section 2.2.2.). 'Gradience' in the structure of 'S + BE + said to be + C' is what Quirk calls 'serial relationships'.

In Quirk *et al.* (1985: 921-928), what Quirk calls 'serial relationships' can be observed between conjunctions and conjunctive adverbs. In Quirk *et al.*, conjunctions or connectives are called 'linkers'. 'Linkers' is a useful term because conjunctions and conjunctive adverbs, which are used as technical terms in 'traditional grammar', are both included in it. Conjunctive adverbs are just called 'conjuncts' in Quirk *et al.* They in some respects resemble coordinators. What Quirk *et al.* call 'linkers' are composed of 'coordinators', 'subordinators' and 'conjuncts'. An example of a central 'coordinator' is 'and', an example of the central 'subordinators' is 'if', and an example of the central 'conjuncts' is 'yet'. Quirk *et al.* use six conditions to show 'gradience' among 'coordinators', 'subordinators', and 'conjuncts'. The six conditions are given below:

(a) It is immobile in front of its clause.
(b) A clause beginning with it is sequentially fixed in relation to the previous clause, and hence cannot be moved to a position in front of that clause.
(c) It does not allow a conjunction to precede it.
(d) It links not only clauses, but predicates and other clause constituents.
(e) It can link subordinate clauses.
(f) It can link more than two clauses, and when it does so all but the final instance of the linking item can be omitted.

Quirk *et al.* (1985), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004: 428)

Materials of what Quirk *et al.* call 'linkers' are given below:

As 'coordinators', 'and', 'or', and 'but' are adopted. As 'conjuncts', one group composed of

'yet', 'so', and 'nor' is adopted, and another group composed of 'however' and 'therefore' is adopted. As 'subordinators', one group composed of 'for' and 'so that' is adopted, and another group composed of 'if' and 'because' is adopted. When materials ('coordinators', 'conjuncts', and 'subordinators') are applied to the six conditions given above, the result of the applicability is given below:

		(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)	(f)
coordinators	and, or	+	+	+	+	+	+
	but	+	+	+	+	+/−	+
conjuncts	yet, so, nor	+	+	×	+	−	−
	however, therefore	−	+	−	−	−	−
subordinators	for, so that	+	+	+	−	−	−
	if, because	+	+/−	+	−	−	−

Quirk *et al.* (1985), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004: 430)

Concerning the symbols in the table above, Quirk *et al.* explain the details like this:

If an item satisfies a criterion, this is indicated by a '+' in the relevant cell. If it fails to satisfy the criterion, '−' is entered. The combination '+/−' takes care of cases, … , where the item satisfies the criterion only under conditions…. The cross '×' in column (c) records the fact, … , that words like *yet*, *so*, and *nor*, although they allow a preceding coordinator, also allow the omission of the coordinator more readily than other conjuncts. In other words, they favour asyndeton, and to that extent resemble coordinators with respect to column (c) as much as they resemble conjuncts.

Quirk *et al.* (1985), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004: 429-30)

I almost agree with the result of Quirk *et al.*, but concerning the symbol '+/−', we need to know the details. First, regarding the criterion (b), the symbol '+/−' is given to 'subordinators' such as 'if' and 'because'. Quirk *et al.* give us a note about it like this:

When *because* introduces a disjunct clause, it resembles *for* and *so that*, in that the clause which it introduces cannot be moved to initial position in the sentence:
She PAID for the book, because I SAW her. ≠ *Because* I saw her, she paid for the book.
This explains the '+/−' in column (b).

Quirk *et al.* (1985), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004: 430)

Secondly, concerning the criterion (e), the symbol '+/−' is given to 'but', one of the 'coordinators'. Quirk *et al.* explain that 'but' cannot always link subordinate clauses, because the problem of the scope of negation is involved.

(1) ? They won't help you *if* you pay them, *but if* you promise to help them in return.
(2) * They didn't stay *although* they were happy, *but although* they were bored.
(3) It might have turned out all right, *not if* he had been more forceful *but if* he had been more tactful.

Quirk *et al.* (1985), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004: 427)

According to Quirk *et al.*, concerning the sentence (3), we can find the scope of negation more easily, because the correlation of 'not … but' is very clear. In contrast, concerning the sentences (1) and (2), we cannot find out the correlation clearly. According to Quirk

et al., the conditions or occasions where 'but' can link subordinate clauses are restricted to three cases given below: first, when the coordinator 'but' conjoins that-clauses even if the second subordinator is omitted or dropped. Secondly, when the coordinator 'but' conjoins temporal adverbial clauses. Thirdly, when the problem of the scope of negation is clear-cut and the correlation of 'not … but' is also clear.

(4) She said *that* John would take them by car *but* (*that*) they might be late.

(5) I spoke to him *after* the conference was over, *but before* he started work.

(6) He didn't save in order to go to school, *but* in order to buy a car.

Quirk *et al.* (1985), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004: 427)

Concerning the sentence (4), the second subordinator 'that' can be omitted or dropped. In the sentence (6), the purpose or reason why 'he' in the sentence managed to save money is clearly shown by way of repeating the contrasting phrase 'in order to'. This is why the correlation of 'not … but' can be figured out clearly.

In this section, through the result of Quirk *et al.*, we can find out that there is 'gradience' in what Quirk *et al.* call 'linkers', namely, 'gradience' from 'coordinators' through 'conjuncts' to 'subordinators'. In the conjuncts, 'however' and 'therefore' satisfy only one criterion given by Quirk *et al.*. That is, 'however' and 'therefore' have the low degree of the characteristics of conjunctions or rather they have the tendency to have the characteristics of adverbs.

2.3. Summary of Chapter 2

In Chapter 2, we observed 'gradience' scales in linguistic phenomena. As was

stated in the introduction of Chapter 2 (Cf. section 2.1. and section 2.2.), there also appears 'fuzziness' in the philosophical field. Early in the ancient times, Aristotle recognized that language had discrete quantities when Aristotle tried to categorize number and language. Aristotle compares the key term 'discrete' with another one 'continuous'. 'Continuous' categories are lines, surfaces, and bodies. Aristotle points out that in spoken language, language has quantitative evidence since it is measured by long and short syllables. That is, we cannot find out that, based on any common boundary, namely, any centre fields, both long and short syllables can join together. In addition to the notion of 'discrete' and 'continuous', Aristotle points out that time and space have different aspects, but, finally, both time and place have the 'continuous' quantities. This is because present time can be added to both past time and future time, and a certain place is occupied by the part of a body, and thus if bodies are 'continuous' phenomena, then places are also 'continuous' aspects. In any event, it is surprising that in ancient times, phenomena of 'continuous' and 'discrete' were discussed and linguistic phenomena were regarded as 'discrete'. In this point, the idea towards language, that is, the notion 'discrete', is different from that of other linguists I discussed in this dissertation. Conversely, Bertrand Russell, a philosopher, insists that linguistic phenomena should have some 'vague' aspects (Cf. section 2.1. and section 2.2.). Though Aristotle uses the contrastive key terms, 'continuous' and 'discrete', Russell uses other contrastive ones, 'vagueness' and 'accuracy'. For example, it is accurate or clear that both sentences, '*Brutus killed Caesar*' and '*Plato loved Socrates*', have the same structure at least in logic. On the other hand, according to the definition by Russell, 'vagueness' is defined as follows:

> Vagueness, clearly, is a matter of degree, depending upon the extent on the

possible differences between different systems represented by the same representation. Accuracy, on the contrary, is an ideal limit.

Russell (1923), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004: 38)

Here we can recognize that the essence of the notion of 'vagueness' is a matter of 'degree'. The notion of a matter of 'degree' later leads to the idea of 'gradience' in linguistic phenomena.

In Chapter 2, I introduced the ways of thinking about 'gradience' of three linguists. First, I picked out the notion of Bolinger (1961). Bolinger takes a serious view of 'gradience' and Bolinger recognizes that in the areas of phonetics, there can appear continuous phenomena. What is more, Bolinger uses the contrastive terms such as 'generality' and 'ambiguity'. When a concept is integrated into the higher hierarchy, namely, when it is generalized, there can appear the characteristics of 'ambiguity'. Recall the difference between the Chinese word, '*ren*' and the English words 'man' and 'woman', and the difference between the English word 'colored' and the English words, 'brown' and 'red'. As another semantic aspect, Bolinger points out that there appears an ambiguous aspect both in Chinese and English words. Recall the linguistic test, composed of a question and its several answers:

" Well, my assignment's almost done. You finish yours?" – "No, I … n't."

Bolinger (1961), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004: 316)

With respect to the answer, 'No, I … n't' of the test, most of the informants chose 'have' or 'did' as the answer, but there were other kinds of answer such as 'shan't', 'couldn't', 'won't', 'wouldn't', and 'ain't'. Here we can find out that there is an ambiguous aspect

even if there is, actually, a general tendency of choosing the answers such as the alternatives of 'have' or 'did'. Moreover, Bolinger recognizes that idiomatic expressions also have 'gradience' phenomena:

> The extreme case is of course the idiom, and we can refer to the gradient of idiomatic stereotyping as "idiomization" and the process as "to idiomize" – the analog, in the idiom grammar, of "grammaticization" in the transform grammar.
>
> Bolinger (1961), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004: 318)

Secondly, I picked out the notions of Quirk (1965) and Quirk *et al.* (1985) (Cf. section 2.2.2., and section 2.2.4.). Quirk (1965) adopts the notion of 'gradience' which Bolinger uses, and develops it. Quirk uses the notion of 'serial relationships' to emphasize the continuous aspects of linguistic phenomena. Particularly, Quirk uses eight parameters to show the distribution of the 'say' subclasses taking 'factive' or 'parafactive' complements, based on the structure 'S + BE + *said to be* + C' (as in *He was said to be foolish*). Thirteen verbs are picked out as materials and there appear what Quirk calls 'serial relationships' from 'think' (one of the candidates) to 'elect' (another). In addition, Quirk *et al.* (1985) find out 'gradience' aspects among conjunctions. Quirk *et al.* classify what is called conjunctions into three types: 'coordinators', 'conjuncts', and 'subordinators'. Quirk *et al.* use six parameters or criteria to examine the distribution among what is called conjunctions. From the result of Quirk *et al.*, we can find out that there is 'gradience' from what we call conjunctions to the types similar to adverbs. Especially, the groups of the conjuncts such as 'however' and 'therefore' have a marked tendency towards adverbs. At any event, Quirk (1965) and Quirk *et al.* (1985) discuss that there are 'gradience' aspects, i.e. what Quirk calls 'serial relationships' in linguistic

phenomena.

Thirdly, I picked out the notion of Ross (1973b). Though Ross is a linguist of 'trasnsformational grammar', Ross recognizes the notion of 'gradience'. Of course, Ross does not use the term 'gradience' but uses the word 'squish' to show that there are degrees in what Ross calls 'nouniness'. It is shown that there is a 'squish' from simple noun to 'that'-clause.

I picked out three linguists, Bolinger, Quirk, and Ross. Bolinger is a representative in 'semantics' area, Quirk is a linguist in 'descriptive grammar', and Ross is a linguist in 'transformational grammar'. They discuss that there are 'gradience' phenomena, though each of them use different terms implying 'gradience'. Those linguists I picked out in this dissertation create new terms which grasp the continuous aspects of language such as 'gradience', 'serial relationships' and 'squish'. What is the similarity and the difference with respect to 'gradience' among the ideas of three linguists or their linguistic fields? The answer is that there always occurs 'gradience' when we, particularly grammarians, try to analyze or manipulate linguistic materials in almost all linguistic fields. In 'semantics', Bolinger deals with the varieties of meanings of words. In 'transformational grammar', Ross deals with the variety from the word to the clause in 'nouniness'. In 'descriptive grammar', Quirk *et al.* deal with 'gradience' within and between parts of speech.

Of course, there are other linguists who do not use the term 'gradience' but who show there are 'continuous' aspects in language. In particular, I would like to pick out one example of such a linguist, that is, David Crystal (1967). Crystal analyzes parts of speech from the viewpoint of 'structuralism'. Crystal lists five characteristics of adjectives and applies these to seven groups of materials given below:

(1) ability to form adverbs by adding '-ly'

(2) ability to inflect for degree (without '-ly' suffix) within nominal group functioning as subject (i.e. to exclude 'We seem to be more inside than outside', etc.)

(3) ability to take intensifiers, especially 'very', within nominal groups functioning as subject

(4) ability to occur in the slot 'a / the ~ *Noun*'(where '*Noun*' stands for any of the central class of nouns)

(5) ability to occur in predicative position after the sub-class of verbs including 'be', 'seem' and 'become'

	1	2	3	4	5
asleep	−	−	−	−	+
alike	−	?+	−	−	+
one, two, etc	−	−	−	+	+
inside, downstairs	−	−	−	+	+
top, bottom	−	−	+	+	+
old, young, fast, big, poorly, small	−	+	+	+	+
hard, kindly, low	?+	+	+	+	+

Crystal (1967), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004: 207)

The more symbol's '+' in the table given above the words of a group get, the more characteristics of adjectives they tend to get.

As a result, the group composed of 'hard', 'kindly', and 'low' has more adjective-like aspects than that of 'old', 'young' and so on. Crystal does not use the technical term 'gradience', but technically shows a continuous aspect in adjectives.

Chapter 3 Previous studies on 'transitivity'

3.1. Introduction

Chapter 3 gives consideration to the notion of 'transitivity'. In this introduction, a general view of 'transitivity' is shown. In addition, in the first place, why does the notion of 'transitivity' need to be discussed? In this dissertation, if 'gradience' in English grammar should have been discussed, then how does the notion of 'gradience' have connection with 'transitivity'? In fact, the notion of 'transitivity' involves some gradable matters particularly from the viewpoint of syntax and semantics.

> Transitivity is a much more fluid matter in English. There are, it is true, a number of verbs that are strictly transitive, e.g. *like*, *promote*, *recognize*, *inform*, and a few that are strictly intransitive, e.g. *arrive*, *chat*, *matter*. But many verbs in English may be used either transitively or intransitively. Dixon (2005: 286)

The verbs Dixon chose as 'strictly transitive' might be what is called genuine 'transitive verbs' and, likewise, the verbs Dixon chose as 'strictly intransitive' might be genuine 'intransitive verbs'. Other verbs have both characteristics. From Dixon's statement given above, we can recognize that there is 'gradience' from strictly transitive verbs through intermediate ones to strictly intransitive ones. Three stages lead to the subclassification of verbs, but concerning strictly transitive verbs, we need to discuss the cases where they require prepositions.

(1) He kicked the ball.

(2) He kicked at the ball.

The verb 'kick' given above is what Dixon calls one of the strictly transitive verbs. What is the difference between the sentence (1) and the sentence (2)? When we try to grasp the difference between them, we need to know the function of prepositions. In the meaning of the sentence (1), the fact that the action has been completely performed is involved, but, on the other hand, from the meaning of the sentence (2), we cannot recognize the same fact, that is, we cannot decide whether or not the action has been completely performed. This means that the degree of 'transitivity' tends to be changeable when some kinds of preposition are inserted. And at the same time, there are some cases where what Dixon calls strongly intransitive verbs can be changed into transitive verb-like verbs when intransitive verbs need prepositions, and their degrees of 'transitivity' become higher. These verbs are, for example, 'refer' or 'rely', and 'refer' requires the preposition '*to*', and likewise, 'rely' needs '*on*'. The problems about 'transitivity' are sometimes discussed in relation to the notion of 'passivisation'. Namely, the more 'passivizable' a verb is, the higher 'transitivity' the verb gets. This is discussed mainly in Chapter 4.

Bolinger (1974) uses the term 'affectedness' by the action to show how much a verb of a sentence can affect or influence an object in the 'semantic' approach. Similarly, Dixon (2005) discusses the problems of 'transitivity' in relation to the prepositions and causatives mainly in 'semantic' approach. Hopper and Thompson (1980) use a diagram which gives several criteria to show how high or low 'transitivity' of a verb is.

3.2. Aspects of 'transitivity'

3.2.1. 'Affectedness by the action' (Bolinger, D. L., 1975)

In Bolinger (1975), Bolinger discusses the relationships between the passive sentences and 'transitivity'. In the first half his paper, relationships between idiomatic expressions and the passive sentences are discussed. Furthermore, Bolinger discusses the relationship between 'reflexivization' and 'passivisation', particularly in idiomatic expressions. Bolinger picks up two factors for 'passivisation':

… first, the semantic relationship between the prepositional verb and the patient, which needs to be reexamined for simple verbs as well as prepositional ones; second, the interpretability of the sentence. Bolinger (1975: 59)

Bolinger uses the term 'lexical' and 'lexicalized' to show the degrees of 'idiomaticity'. In Bolinger's terms, 'lexicalized' words are idioms whose combinations are 'verb + noun + preposition', such as 'make fun of', 'take umbrage at' and so on:

(1) a. Thermometers were made use of.

b. The weather was taken advantage of.

c. *This bed was eaten potato chips in. Bolinger (1975: 58)

Regarding 'lexicalized' words, Bolinger points out that there are cases where 'passivisation' is possible and cases where it is not. 'Lexicalized' words are the ones whose semantic integrity is strong. Both sentences (1-a) and (1-b) are passivised sentences, but the sentence (1-c) is not. Bolinger says the following:

"clauses whose direct object and verb are particularly closely connected lexically, and which must also contain a preposition – phrase whose preposition is selected by the

verb and direct – object together." Bolinger (1975: 58)

Bolinger lists several key notions that will help explain why some idiomatic expressions can be passivised but not others. They are: first, 'contextual parallelism', second, 'analogy, especially in the case of indirect object ditransitives', third, 'the use of empty verbs', fourth, 'predictability of the verb + noun combination', and lastly, 'repetition and presupposition'.

About the first notion: according to Bolinger, in a certain context, there are cases where passive sentences with idiomatic expressions appear in succession. In these cases, even 'lexicalized' phrases which originally cannot be passivised happen to be passivised. About the second notion: according to Bolinger, there are cases where a verb and its nouny object have an analogical connection like that the verb 'write' and its object 'letter' have. In these cases, in 'lexicalized' connection, it is easy to associate the verb with its object. About the third notion: according to Bolinger, there are cases where 'lexicalized' idiomatic expressions are used even when the same meaning can be expressed only by a single transitive verb. In these cases, as part of the 'lexicalized' expressions, what Bolinger calls 'empty' verbs such as 'make', 'put' and so on, are used. In general, 'empty' verbs are called 'light' verbs. About the fourth notion: according to Bolinger, there are cases where 'lexicalized' idiomatic expressions have closely connected relations observed, e.g., in 'tell a lie'. This is similar to the second notion and we can predict the connection between a verb and its object. About the final notion.: according to Bolinger, even if in a simple sentence 'passivisation' cannot be done, it happens to be done in some specific contexts. These causes are similar to the previous factors.

As we can see the notions about 'passivisation' given above, especially, the

connections of related 'lexicalized' words are important. Since words might be connected tightly, we can predict the relationship between a verb and its object, and thus we can recognize the analogical relationships.

In the latter half of Bolinger (1975), relationships between passive constructions and 'transitivity' are discussed. In dealing with them, Bolinger uses the term 'affected' and 'affectedness':

Returning now to normal passives, the hypothesis I propose is this: the subject in a passive construction is conceived to be a true patient, i.e., to be genuinely affected by the action of the verb. If the grammatical object in the active construction is not conceived as a true patient, there will be no corresponding passive. Bolinger (1975: 67)

Bolinger asserts that the subject in a passive construction gets some sort of influence:

(2) a. The chair was given to John. (The chair is viewed as affected)

b. John was given the chair. (John is viewed as affected.)

c. The chair was sat on.

d. The chair was put varnish on. Bolinger (1975: 67)

Concerning the sentences (2-a) and (2-b), Bolinger describes that the subjects such as *the chair* and *John* are affected. According to Bolinger, the affected relationships between the subject and the patient seem to be described in terms of the notion of 'transitivity':

… there must be a genuinely transitive relationship between verb and patient;

this defines a true patient. The passive is marked for transitivity….

Bolinger (1975: 68)

(3) a. George turned the pages.

b. The pages were turned by George.

c. George turned the corner.

d. *The corner was turned by George. Bolinger (1977: 10)

The 'affected' relation is observed in the sentences (3). Bolinger asserts that the active sentence (3-a) can be passivised and the active sentence (3-c) cannot be passivised into (3-d) because in the former (3-b) the subject 'the pages' are affected, but in the latter (3-d), 'the subject' the corner is not affected. In addition, the notion of 'transitivity', which is defined as 'affectedness', is expanded into the notion of 'spatiality':

(4) a. The stranger approached me.

b. I was approached by the stranger.

c. The train approached me.

d. *I was approached by the train. Bolinger (1975: 68)

Concerning the sentence (4-b), Bolinger asserts that the subject 'I' is thought to be 'affected' because the stranger might be a panhandler. (Bolinger, 1975:68) The same discussion is given in Bolinger (1977: 10) and Dixon (2005: 353-354) quotes Bolinger's description and comments on it:

(5) a. George turned the pages.

b. The pages were turned by George.

c. George turned the corner.

d. *The corner was turned by George.

e. That corner hasn't been turned yet. Bolinger (1977: 10)

In the sentences of (5), the notion of 'affectedness' is used to explain the grammaticality difference. In the sentences (5-a) and (5-b), Bolinger recognizes a relationship of 'affectedness' but, on the other hand, in the sentence (5-d), Bolinger does not. Both the sentences (5-a) and (5-b) are similar in syntax, but the sentence (4-d) is not allowed to be passivised. This difference sometimes depends on contexts. If the subject, 'the corner' in the sentence (4-d) were a special sign, 'passivisation' of the sentence would be appropriate.

Dixon (2005: 354) quotes Bolinger's discussion and the sentences in (5) given above, and emphasizes that the passive is a marked construction and whether or not a sentence can be passivised depends on its discourse and socio-cultural context.

Moreover, in Bolinger (1975: 76), Bolinger summarises the relationships between 'transitivity' and 'spatiality', and points out that 'transitivity' is not only a feature *of* verbs but also one *in* both verbs and prepositions.

(6) a. Which tables have been laid tablecloths on?

b. *Which tables have been laid books on?

c. ?Which tables have been laid the tablecloths on?

d. **Which tables have been laid the books on? Bolinger (1975: 76)

Concerning 'tablecloths' and 'books', there is a difference between a relationship towards

'tables' in the notion of 'spatiality'.

Is Bolinger's notion of 'affectedness' fully related to the notion of 'transitivity'? Consider the example given below:

(7) There is believed to be a unicorn in the yard.

Indeed, the sentence (7) is a passivised sentence, but is 'there' in 'There is believed …' affected? In my opinion, the notion of 'affectedness' is based on the presence of an active sentence, in which both a subject and an object which are based on verbs have a certain relationship. Of course, it is also an important factor whether or not prepositions are inserted. Concerning the sentence (7), the 'there' construction is, in a sense, exceptional. That is, 'there' is inanimate and it is a grammatical marker. Concerning the sentence (7) given above, towards the word 'there', the notion of 'affectedness' is not at issue.

3.2.2. 'Transitivity and causatives' (Dixon, R. M. W., 2005)

Dixon (2005) deals with the problems of 'transitivity', particularly with respect to the presence or absence of prepositions and causatives. Dixon recognizes that there are three types of verbs, i.e. what Dixon calls 'strictly transitive' verbs, 'strictly intransitive' verbs and verbs in between. Dixon seems to be using the scheme of 'case grammar' and the scheme is introduced by Fillmore. Dixon explains the behavior of the types of verbs as given below:

(1) those for which S = A, e.g. *She's following* (*us*), *Have you eaten* (*lunch*)*?*, *He's knitting* (*a jumper*), *I won* (*the game*);

(2) those for which S = O, e.g. *The ice melted* / *Ivan melted the ice, Mary's arm hurts* / *John hurt Mary's arm, Fred tripped up* / *Jane tripped up Fred, Tim is working hard* / *Tim's boss is working him hard.* Dixon (2005: 286)

Concerning (1), (1) is an unergative type and (1) is the form in which objects are omitted. If we recognize the issue from the assumption that originally there are transitive verbs, intransitive verbs are generated when the objects are omitted. On the other hand, concerning (2), (2) is an unaccusative type and (2) is the form in which what are originally objects of transitive verbs become subjects. (2) is similar to the middle construction an example of which is this: *The book sells well*. Here, there is a syntactic relationship between intransitive verbs and transitive verbs. This explains the correlation between the intransitive and transitive constructions. In the type of (1), it is the case where the objects of the sentences are omitted, but, on the other hand, with respect to the type of (2), it is the case where the objects of the sentences become the subjects of the sentence. In other words, with respect to the case of the type (1), what we call intransitive verbs are the ones which omit their objects, when we regard so-called transitive verbs as the central structure. In contrast, with respect to the case of the type (2), this is the case where intransitive verbs are used in the causative pattern and the objects of the sentences can become their subjects.

In addition, Dixon discusses the relationship between prepositions and 'transitivity':

(3) a. He kicked (at) the door.

b. She bit (on) the strap. Dixon (2005: 287)

In the introduction to this chapter, I wrote some explanation about the difference between the presence and absence of prepositions. Though the following explanations partly confirm the introduction of this chapter, the fact is that the agent 'he' or 'she' in (3) actually performed the action even when the preposition 'at' is inserted. With respect to this matter, Dixon gives the sentences (4-a) and (4-b) for comparison:

(4) a. He kicked at the ball.

b. He kicked at the door. Dixon (2005: 298)

What is the difference between the sentence (4-a) and the sentence (4-b)? As to the former, we might infer that the agent 'he' happens to miss the completeness of 'his' action, that is, the contact with the ball or the door by 'his' action has the chance of having been missed. On the other hand, as to the latter, the result has something different. The action of the agent 'he' actually affected the door, but owing to the weakness of the influence, the door is not broken down.

(5) He kicked at the door for twenty minutes and eventually he did kick it down.

Dixon (2005: 298)

Concerning the sentence (4-b), the door is not broken down. Conversely, concerning the sentence (5), the phrase 'and eventually he did kick it down' is added and we find out that the action of the agent 'he' is completed. On the other hand, how do we think about the sentence (3-b)? Dixon describes it like this:

Nothing really happens to the strap (a piece wasn't taken out of it) and this is

marked by *on* since it is peripheral to the main focus of the sentence – the fact that she is biting. Dixon (2005: 298)

The insertion of the preposition 'on' seems to cause a kind of 'indirectness'. With respect to this fact, Dixon gives another example and describes some explanation like this:

(6) She bit the apple. Dixon (2005: 298)

When *bite* has a non-animate object it generally refers to separating a portion of something with one's teeth, and eating it. On hearing *she bit the apple* one would infer that a piece was bitten out of the fruit, and then chewed and swallowed.

Dixon (2005: 298)

Following Dixon's description, we could infer that the action of 'bite' happens to the apple in question. Thus, we could infer that the presence or absence of the preposition has something to do with 'directness' or 'indirectness' of the influence from the verb in question.

Next, from Dixon's discussion of 'transitivity', let us choose to look at the details of the relationships between prepositions and verbs. Dixon uses the term 'inherent preposition' verbs to show that there are intransitive verbs which necessarily have fixed or regular prepositions. Dixon lists several verbs and their fixed prepositions as follows:

'refer to', 'rely on', 'look at', 'decide on', 'approve of', 'wish for', 'travel to', 'float on', and so on Dixon (2005: 290ff.)

According to Dixon's remark, 'inherent preposition' verbs given above behave like genuinely transitive verbs, for example, 'refer to' is nearly equal to a transitive verb 'mention', 'rely on' is nearly equal to a transitive verb 'trust' and so forth. However, Dixon points out that there is a difference among 'inherent preposition' verbs as given below:

(7) a. Jespersen was referred to by everyone attending the symposium.

b. *Japan was travelled to by everyone attending the symposium.

c. John's sense of propriety can be relied on.

d. *That pool has been floated on. Dixon (2005: 290)

The verbs such as 'refer', 'rely', 'travel', and 'float' are all 'inherent preposition' verbs in Dixon's sense, but from the sentences given above, we can see that the verbs 'refer' and 'rely' can be passivised, but, on the other hand, the verbs 'travel' and 'float' cannot. Concerning this fact, Dixon's assertion is that these verbs take all 'inherent preposition', but, the verbs 'travel' and 'float' take several 'inherent prepositions'. Several 'inherent prepositions' which Dixon lists are as follows: regarding the verb 'travel', it takes prepositions 'to', 'towards', 'around' and 'in', and regarding the verb 'float', it takes prepositions 'in', 'on', and 'across'. Thus, with respect to 'inherent preposition' verbs, whether or not they can be passivised depends on whether or not they can take multiple inherent prepositions.

Moreover, Dixon refers to the difference between an 'inherent preposition' verb and the transitive verb whose meaning is similar to the 'inherent preposition' verb:

(8) a. He relies on his mother totally.

b. He relies totally on his mother.

c. He trusts his mother totally.

d. *He trusts totally his mother. Dixon (2005: 290)

From the sentences of (8), we find that whether or not an adverb 'totally' can be inserted right after the verb is based on the difference among 'inherent preposition' verbs. As we can see from the sentence (7-d), the genuine transitive verb construction cannot be divided into the verb and its object by an adverb.

Furthermore, another feature of 'inherent preposition' verbs is whether or not they can take a 'that'-clause:

(9) a. We decided on / chose Spain for a holiday this year.

b. We decided / chose that we would go to Spain.

c. We decided / chose to go to Spain. Dixon (2005: 291)

Concerning the sentences of (9), the difference between transitive verbs and intransitive verbs exemplified by such verbs as 'decide' and 'choose' is another issue to be discussed. The verb 'decide on' is the case where intransitive verb 'decide' requires the inherent preposition 'on'. In this case, the question remains whether or not the 'inherent preposition' verb 'decide on' takes 'that'-clause. According to Dixon's assertion, when the verb 'decide' takes 'that'-clause, 'inherent preposition' of the verb, i.e. 'on' , drops.

With reference to Dixon's discussion, we can form a conclusion about the degree of 'transitivity' given below:

(10) 'decide on', 'approve of', and 'wish for' > 'refer to', 'rely on', and 'look at' >

'travel to / towards / around / in', and 'float in / on / across'

The criteria are whether or not an 'inherent preposition' verb takes 'that'-clause and whether or not an 'inherent preposition' verb can be pasivised.

In consequence, Dixon regards the notion of 'transitivity' as 'affectedness' by the action, which term is based on Bolinger (Cf. section 3.2.1.). Dixon's discussion is concerned with the presence or absence of prepositions, and we can conclude that we have 'gradience' given in (10) above.

3.2.3. 'Transitivity in grammar and discourse' (Hopper, P. J. and Thompson, S. A., 1980)

The notion of 'transitivity' can be approached in different ways. In Bolinger (1961), the idea of 'affectedness' by the action is introduced. In Hopper and Thompson (1980), the criteria which allow a measure of 'transitivity' are described as given below:

(1)	HIGH	LOW
PARTICIPANTS	2 or more participants,A and O.	1 participant
KINESIS	action	non-action
ASPECT	telic	atelic
PUNCUALITY	punctual	non-punctual
VOLITIONALITY	volitional	non-volitional
AFFIRMATION	affirmative	negative
MODE	realis	irrealis
AGENCY	a high in potency	a low in potency

AFFECTEDNESS OF O	O totally affected	O not affected
INDIVIDUATION OF O	O highly individuated	O not-individuated

Hopper and Thompson (1980: 252)

Concerning the contents of the diagram given above, particularly important are criteria like these: the numbers of participants, the problems of voice, whether or not aspect of a verb is perfect, and either the presence or absence of volitionality by the agents. Hopper and Thompson discuss the sentences given below:

(2) a. Jerry likes beer.

b. Jerry knocked Sam down. Hopper and Thompson (1980: 253)

According to Hopper and Thompson, the sentence (2-b) has a much higher 'transitivity' than the sentence (2-a), because the former (2-b) satisfies more criteria in the paradigm given above than the latter (2-a):

(3) Kinesis: action.

Aspect: telic.

Punctuality: punctual.

Affectedness of O: total.

Individuation of O: high; referential, animate, and proper.

Hopper and Thompson (1980: 253)

The sentence (2-b) is in the active voice and shows the completion of the action by way of using past tense and a special feature of the object, that is, a proper name. Hopper and

Thompson classify the features of objects like this:

(4)

INDIVIDUATED	NON – INDIVIDUATED
proper	common
human, animate	inanimate
concrete	abstract
singular	plural
count	mass
referential, definite	non – referential

Hopper and Thompson (1980: 253)

Hopper and Thompson's approach towards 'transitivity' is very clear, but some counterexamples to Hopper and Thompson's paradigm can be found:

(5) a. ? The couple next door was known by John.

b. The couple next door is thoroughly / barely known by John.

c. The couple next door is only known by John.

d. ?? Pat's smoking used to be minded by Sam.

e. ? Pat's smoking isn't minded by Sam.

f. ? Pat's smoking is completely / scarcely minded by Sam.

g. Pat's smoking is only minded by Sam. Rice (1987: 429)

In Rice (1987), Rice, indeed, recognizes that Hopper and Thompson's paradigm is appropriate or useful, but Rice points out that there are several cases which might be counterexamples towards Hopper and Thompson's paradigm. In the sentences (5),

Hopper and Thompson discuss that when we have some adverbs or negatives, the appropriateness of sentences happen to be higher. In this case, before going into Rice's discussions, I have to add some comments about the relationship between 'transitivity' and 'passivisation' in Rice's approach. Sentences (5) are all passivised sentences. Rice tacitly recognizes that there are some relationship between 'transitivity' and 'passivisation'. That is, Rice seems to think that the higher the degrees of 'passivisation' are, the higher those of 'transitivity' are. By so doing, Rice appears to think that the more appropriate the passive sentence is, the higher 'transitivity' of the verb or the sentence is. Now, we discuss Rice's assumption. In Hopper and Thompson's paradigm, the number of participants and their characteristics are important factors as to the degree of 'transitivity'. In the sentence (5-a), the number of the participants is two, and they are 'animate', but according to Rice, the sentence (5-a) is awkward. This is, in my opinion, due to problematic characteristics of the verb 'know'. The verb 'know' is not an action verb but a stative verb. Concerning the criteria of Hopper and Thompson (1-B, E, and I), the degrees of 'transitivity' seem to be reduced on this point. In the sentences (5-b and 5-c), though the sentences (5-a) and (5-b) or the sentences (5-a) and (5-c) look similar, the sentences (5-b) and (5-c) are acceptable. With respect to this fact, Rice comments like this:

> Certain adverbs also have a demonstrable effect on passivizability. Not surprisingly, adverbs like "completely", "absolutely", "thoroughly", "totally", "entirely", etc., which signal a sense of completion or goal – attainment, behave as transitiving components. Rather unexpectedly, however, adverbs like "barely", "hardly", "scarcely", and "only", which signal *incompletion*, can enhance transitively as well.
>
> Rice (1987: 429)

According to Rice, given that adverbs such as 'completely' or 'absolutely' which show completeness or fulfillment of the action are added, the degree of 'transitivity' becomes higher and the degree of 'passivisation' becomes higher. Concerning the adverb 'only', Rice comments like this:

> The effect of "only" is to reduce the affectedness of the object by greatly limiting the possible agents or by insinuating, perhaps, that the actual agent somehow deviates from the norm. Rice (1987: 429)

It is true that the criteria which show the degrees of 'transitivity' in Hopper and Thompson (1980) are useful and serviceable. But the degrees of 'transitivity' of a verb are sometimes changeable by the insertion of adverbs. Adverbs of negation and adverbs which show completion of the action have an influence on the criteria of Hopper and Thompson (1980).

3.3. Summary of Chapter 3

In this chapter, the notion of 'transitivity' is discussed particularly in semantic terms.

In section 3.2.1., Bolinger's notion of 'affectedness' is discussed. The notion of 'affectedness' is not easy to grasp objectively. Bolinger discusses it in relation to the notion of 'transitivity'. What is more, Bolinger points out that 'transitivity' is related to the notions of 'spatiality' and 'passivisation'. Bolinger picks up not only simple verbs but also idiomatic expressions composed of 'verb + noun + preposition'. According to

Bolinger's idea, the notion of 'transitivity' is not only a feature *of* a verb but also one *in* a verb. This means that the composition of 'affectedness' is supposed to occur between a verb and its object, but in idiomatic expressions such as 'verb + noun + preposition', the composition of 'affectedness' becomes complicated, for example, in passive constructions, inherent features in idioms are indispensable. These inherent features are discussed in several ways in Bolinger (1975). Bolinger grasps the relationships between 'passivisation' and 'transitivity', in terms of 'affectedness' in five conditions.

The five conditions are: first, contextual parallelism, secondly, analogical patterns, thirdly, the use of empty verbs, fourthly, predictability of the 'verb + noun' combination, and lastly, repetition and presupposition (Bolinger, 1975). About the first factor.: through the contexts, the meaning of an idiomatic expression can be arrived at. About the second factor: an idiomatic expression composed of 'verb + noun + preposition' has a fixed class of verbs and through the choice of the verb, its object can be expected. About the third factor: what Bolinger calls 'empty words', which are, generally speaking, 'light verbs', can be used to compose an idiomatic expression like 'verb + noun + preposition' instead of using a one word verb. About the fourth factor: there is an idiomatic expression composed of 'verb + noun', whose types of verbs are limited. Lastly, through the stream of discourse, that is, through the context, apparently, an idiomatic expression seems to be composed, but, in fact, the verb of the idiomatic expression is not used as an idiom, and the meaning of the idiom cannot be assumed, in the previous context. On the other hand, when a clearly idiomatic expression is used, the similar and an apparent idiomatic expression becomes interpretable. Bolinger insists that the connection of a verb and its object with a preposition should be a matter of importance. The connection between a verb and its object is what Bolinger calls a 'lexicalized' problem. This 'lexicalized' relationship is linked to an analogical connection, and

'passivisation', based on 'transitivity' with the notion of 'affectedness', depends on discourse or contexts.

In section 3.2.2., Dixon's idea about 'transitivity' is discussed. Dixon uses the framework of 'case grammar' to explain the differences between genuine transitive verbs and genuine intransitive verbs. Concerning unergative types, the relationships between a subject and a verb are discussed and, on the other hand, similarly, concerning unaccusative types, the relationships between a verb and its object are discussed.

Next, Dixon discusses the relationships between prepositions and 'transitivity'. It is a well-known fact that how high or low 'transitivity' of a verb is depends on the presence or absence of prepositions. The influences of verbs are subject to change in accordance with the presence and choice of the prepositions. Especially, Dixon (2005) discusses the idiomatic expressions such as 'verb + preposition'. Recall that Bolinger (1975) discusses the idiomatic expressions such as 'verb + noun + preposition'. Bolinger (1975) uses the term 'lexicalized combination' to show the connection in idiomatic expressions, and when discussing the notion of 'transitivity', Dixon (2005) uses the term 'inherent preposition verbs'. Bolinger and Dixon use different terms but their implications have something in common. This is because both idiomatic expressions composed of 'lexicalized combination' and what Dixon calls 'inherent preposition' verbs are combinations composed of 'verbs + prepositions'. Though Dixon uses the same 'inherent preposition' verbs, the features or the relationships between verbs and prepositions are a little bit different. These differences cause how high or low the 'transitivity' of a verb is. For example, 'inherent preposition' verbs do not always take only one preposition. Verbs like 'refer', 'rely', and so on can take only one preposition, but verbs like 'travel' can take general prepositions such as 'to', 'towards', 'around' and 'in'. Dixon takes account of the notion of 'transitivity' as the connection between verbs

and prepositions, and, what is more, tries to relate 'transitivity' with 'passivisation'. In Dixon's view, verbs that take more than one 'inherent preposition' such as 'travel' are difficult to passivise. Then, the degree of 'transitivity' on the verb 'travel' is lower than that on the verbs 'refer', 'rely' and so on.

In section 3.2.3., the approaches towards the notion of 'transitivity' by Hopper and Thompson (1980) are discussed. Hopper and Thompson grasp the notion of 'transitivity' as the relationships on how verbs affect their objects, and use several criteria to show the degree of 'transitivity'. Hopper and Thompson's paradigm is impressive, but, particularly, the notions of 'kinesis', 'punctuality', and 'volitionality' are important. Hopper and Thompson pick up the notion of 'affirmation' and regards it as the key factor of 'transitivity', but Rice (1987) discusses that 'transitivity' becomes higher even if a sentence is negative. Instead, Rice uses the term 'completeness' to show the degree of 'transitivity'.

Chapter 4 'Gradience' between adverbs (adverbial prepositions) and prepositions (prototypical or central prepositions)

4.1. Introduction

When we analyze the passivisation of such idiomatic expressions as those units composed of 'intransitive verb + preposition', e.g. 'look at' or 'go in', the following two points should be considered.

First, in idiomatic expressions ('intransitive verb + preposition') such as 'look at' and 'go in', what kind of characteristics do the prepositions such as 'at' and 'in' have? Secondly, what kind of idiomatic expressions ('intransitive verb + preposition') tend to be passivised, based on the characteristics of the prepositions?

In this chapter, regarding the two points given above, using the three key words such as 'passivisation', 'transitivity', and 'idiomaticity', we claim that there is 'gradience' among prepositions from the semantic point of view.

Moreover, in this chapter, besides 'look', 'go', and 'come', fifteen other intransitive verbs are analyzed. This is done because these fifteen intransitive verbs are the ones which represent or show 'motion' in daily lives, as do 'look', 'go', and 'come'. These fifteen verbs are 'slip', 'sit', 'walk', 'swim', 'travel', 'talk', 'write', 'stand', 'sing', 'act', 'dive', 'rest', 'fall', 'die', and 'work'. The verbs, 'look', 'go', and 'come' show 'motion' such as 'attention-placement' and 'coming and going'.

Regarding the three key words such as 'passivisation', 'transitivity', and 'idiomaticity' given above, there are a variety of definitions of these notions that differ from linguist to linguist. So, the notion relating to the key word, 'transitivity', was discussed in chapter 3 of this thesis. Moreover, in this section, we claim that the three key words are related to one another. Basically, 'passivisation' and 'transitivity' are

considered to have some kind of correlation. In this thesis, besides the relationship between 'passivisation' and 'transitivity', how linguists deal with the key word 'idiomaticity' is an important issue. When we deal with the idiomatic expressions in this chapter, the idiomatic expressions are limited to the type of 'intransitive verb + preposition': we discuss the type of idioms 'V + P' with the following NP that subsequently becomes the passive subject. Thus, in this dissertation, idiomatic expressions of 'VN (= transitive verb + noun)' or 'VNP (= transitive verb + noun + preposition)' type are not discussed: we do not discuss the type of idioms 'VN' or 'VNP' where N or NP becomes the passive subject. The relationships between 'idiomaticity' and 'VN' or 'VNP' type are different from those between 'idiomaticity' and 'intransitive verb + preposition'. The relationships between 'idiomaticity' and 'VN' or 'VNP' type are discussed concisely in Akimoto (1985: 146).

In Akimoto's analysis, it is shown that the more idiomatic the idioms are, the less passivised they are. This shows the relationship between 'idiomaticity' and 'passivisation'. I agree with Akimoto's analysis concerning the idioms of 'VN' or 'VNP' type. On the other hand, as for the idioms of 'intransitive verb + preposition', different results are given in this chapter. This means that the fact that the more idiomatic idioms of the 'VN' or 'VNP' type are, the less passivised they are, does not apply to the idiom of the form 'intransitive verb + preposition'.[1]

4.2. The relationships between 'transitivity' and 'passivisation'

[1] The difference of the results between Akimoto's analysis and Watanabe's one is based on the following reason. Akimoto researches 'VN' and 'VNP' type of idioms and Watanabe researches the idioms of the form 'intransitive verb + preposition'. Concerning the case of 'VN' and 'VNP' type of idioms, the NP in the idiom is included inside the idiom, but concerning the case of the idioms of the form 'intransitive verb + preposition', the NP is not. This is why we can see the difference between the passivisation in which the NP inside the idioms is used as a subject and the passivisation in which NP outside the idioms is used as a subject.

4.2.1. 'transitivity' and 'passivisation' (Fukumura, T., 1998)

In chapter 3 of this dissertation, we referred to several kinds of attitudes towards 'transitivity'. Bolinger uses his key term, 'affectedness by the action' to define the idea of 'transitivity'. Also in Fukumura (1965, 1998[2]) in reference to 'transitivity', the relationships of 'motion' and 'action' are discussed. The following description is the definition of 'transitivity' in Fukumura (1998[2]: 141):

> When we recognize that there are two arguments which are an agent and a patient (the former is called 'A' and the latter 'B') and they have some indirect relationships of the influential action or operation from 'A' to 'B' ('A'→'B'), as well as the direct influence from 'A' to 'B', we can call the viewpoint focused on 'A' 'transitivity'.
>
> Fukumura (1998[2]: 141), summarized in English by Watanabe

Fukumura's notion is similar to Bolinger's definition of 'transitivity'. Suppose there is a verb with two arguments, that is, there is a verb which requires <SVO (= Subject-Verb-Object)> type. Then, 'transitivity' is regarded as simply the expression of 'influence of the action' from the viewpoint of the subject (= <S>).

Recall the content of Chapter 3 of this thesis.

(1) a. I kicked the ball.

b. I kicked at the ball.

When we compare (1-a) with (1-b), what Bolinger calls 'influence of the action' is stronger in (1-a), and from a semantic viewpoint, the completion of action is also

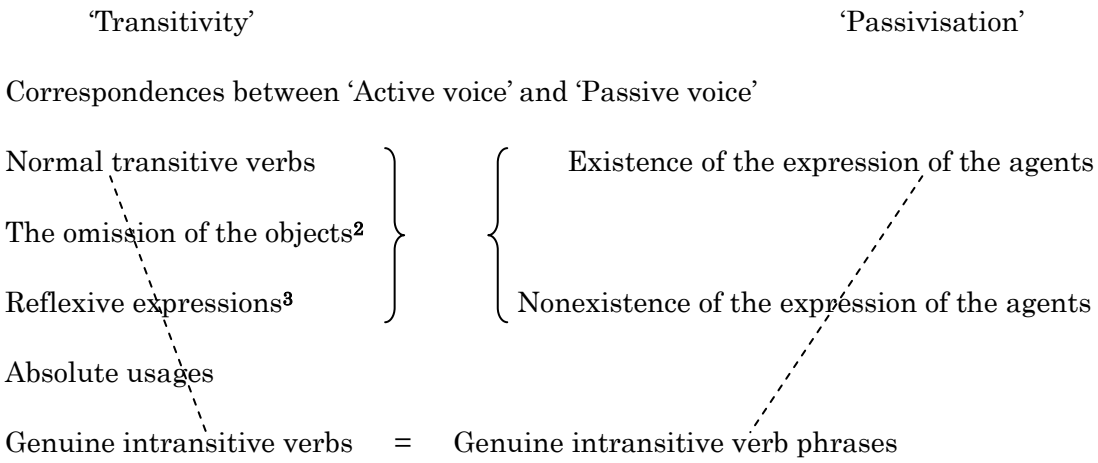
involved in (1-a). That is, in the sentence (1-a), the subject completed an action, but, in the sentence (1-b), on the other hand, the completion is not always implied. This means that concerning the sentence (1-b), the preposition is inserted and the degree of 'influence of the action' becomes lower.

Now, concerning the relationships between 'transitivity' and 'passivisation', Fukumura describes them as given below:

The correspondence between 'active voice' and 'passive voice' essentially means the difference of the ways of thought in motion and action. 'passive voice' in English is related to the transitive verbs and a transitive verb represents the frame of 'active voice', to which 'passive voice' makes a sharp contrast …. Normal transitive expressions and passivised expressions in which agents are made explicit are related to each other semantically. Moreover, in conversation, 'active voice' in which subjects are not shown or omitted and 'passive voice' in which agents are not made explicit are also related to each other semantically.

Fukumura (1998[2]: 206-207), translated by Watanabe

In short what does Fukumura mean concerning 'transitivity' and 'passivisation'? Concerning 'transitivity' in the active and the passive sentences, he says that the direction or the way of motion and action is the same in both constructions, but the viewpoint is reversed. Semantically, the relationships between 'passivisation' and 'transitivity' are opposed in a parallel way. The following chart or graph is the relationships between 'transitivity' and 'passivisation' which are given by Fukumura, T.



Fukumura (1998[2]: 207), translated by Watanabe

In Fukumura (1998: 207), using the chart given above, the parallel relationships between 'transitivity' and 'passivisation' are shown. 'The omission of the objects' means the case in which objects are omitted, and 'reflexive expressions' means the case in which reflexive expressions are used. In his diagram, the left side of the diagram shows a chain of continuity from the viewpoint of 'transitivity', but, on the other hand, the right side of the diagram shows a chain of continuity from the viewpoint of 'passivisation'. These relationships are based on the gradient stages from regular transitive verbs through reflexive verbs to genuine intransitive verbs, and are also based on the presence or the absence of the expression of the agents. In short, Fukumura's diagram given above shows the cases where transitive verbs are passivised and have the corresponding genuine intransitive verbs.

4.2.2. The passive's correlations with 'transitivity' (Langacker, R.W., 2008)

[2] The case in which objects are omitted.
[3] The case in which reflexive expressions are used.

In section 4.2.1., the relationships between 'transitivity' and 'passivisation' are discussed in terms of the idea in Fukumura (1998[2]). In Fukumura's discussion, it is shown that 'transitivity' and 'passivisation' are related and are parallel with each other.

In the same way, Langacker (2008), a cognitive linguist, recognizes the relationships between 'transitivity' and 'passivisation'. In Langacker (2008: 387), Langacker gives some examples connected with the relationships between transitivity and passivisation as given below:

Since the ability to passivize correlates with transitivity (at least in English), their failure to do so suggests that they actually lack this property.

(a) The envelope contained his will.
(a')*His will was contained by the envelope.
(b) The lecturer finally reached the end.
(b')*The end was finally reached by the lecturer.
(c) The train is approaching Chicago.
(c')*Chicago is being approached by the train.

Langacker (2008: 387)

Concerning the sentences (a), (b), and (c) given above, Langacker insists that they might appear to be transitive clauses, but they reject passivisation. (Cf. sentences (a'), (b'), (c').)

Langacker discusses the key factor that lies between transitivity and passivisation as given below:

The form of a clause is not itself enough to make it transitive. The key factor in transitivity is conceptual in nature – roughly, the degree of approximation to a canonical agent-patient interaction (Hopper and Thompson 1980; Rice 1987a, 1987b).

Langacker (2008: 387)

And concerning the verbs 'contain', 'reach', and 'approach', Langacker states as given below:

A clause can thus be transitive only if its trajector and landmark are both participants. … In each clause, one of the two focal elements is construed as a location: the trajector of *contain* represents the location of its landmark; conversely, with *reach* and *approach* the landmark is the final or projected location of the trajector. Being nontransitive, these clauses lack passive alternants.

Langacker (2008: 388)

Langacker's statements as given above are the ones which suggest that 'transitivity' and 'passivisation' have a relationship with each other. That is, according to Langacker's opinion, from the semantic point of view, the more passivised the verb of a sentence is, the higher its 'transitivity' is.

4.3. The relationships between 'passivisation' and 'idiomaticity'

4.3.1. 'idiomaticity' (Akimoto, M., 1983, 1985)

As far as 'idiomaticity' goes, its definitions vary from linguist to linguist. For example, Akimoto (1983) gives the following definition about 'idiomaticity'.

… the idioms can be graded from 'most idiomatic' to 'least idiomatic' poles. In between there is a wide range of gradation over which the idioms are scattered.

Akimoto (1983: 20)

The way to define 'idiomaticity' in Akimoto (1983) is a semantic approach. Akimoto deals with such idioms as 'VN' type and 'VNP' type. Towards the both types of idioms, Akimoto performs several tests such as 'relativisation', 'tough movement', and 'topicalisation':

The talks he had with President Reagan cleared the air.

(a) The air was cleared by the talks he had with President Reagan. ・・・passivisation

(b) The air which he cleared by the talks with President Reagan is not convincing. ・・・ relativisation

(c) *The air is difficult (for him) to clear by the talks with President Regan. ・・・tough movement

(d) ?The air, he cleared by the talks with President Reagan. ・・・ topicalisation

Akimoto (1985: 119)

The sentences given above are the results of the four transformations, i.e. 'passivisation', 'relativisation', 'tough movement', and 'topicalisation'. In Akimoto (1985:146), based on the transformations given above, Akimoto's analysis shows 'gradience' in 'idiomaticity' from 'most idiomatic' through 'less idiomatic' to 'least idiomatic'. See below:

	most idiomatic	less idiomatic	least idiomatic
meaning	idiomatic meaning	semi-idiomatic meaning	literal meaning
grammatical features	−indefinite article −number contrast −modifier	+/−indefinite article +/−number contrast +/−modifier	+ indefinite article + number contrast + modifier
examples of transformation	− passivisation − relativisation − tough movement − topicalisation	+/− passivisation +/− relativisation +/−tough movement +/−topicalisation	+ passivisation + relativisation ?+ tough movement + topicalisation
examples	take place, break step, make hay of, take part in	take offence, break stones, make a fool of, take advantage of	take an oath, break the news, make an example of, take an interest in

Akimoto (1985: 146)

From the result of Akimoto's survey, we can find out that the less passivised the idioms are, the more idiomatic they are. But note that the idioms Akimoto adopts are 'VN' and 'VNP' idioms.

In Akimoto (1985), the same two types of idiomatic expressions, that is, 'VN' type and 'VNP' type are discussed. Concerning the 'VN' type, the examples are: 'lose heart'[= be discouraged], 'make haste'[= hurry], 'take place'[= happen] and so on. On the other hand, concerning the 'VNP' type, it is classified into four patterns according to Akimot's analysis. Concerning nouns of the 'VNP' type, the difference of rule applicability between the object of the verb and the object of the preposition is important.

Type Ⅰ) The case where the object of the verb and the object of the preposition can be passivised (For example: 'take advantage of')

(a) Everyone took advantage of their inexperience.

(b) Advantage was taken of their inexperience. [the case where the object of the verb is passivised]

(c) Their inexperience was taken advantage of. [the case where the object of the preposition is passivised]

Type Ⅱ) The case where only the object of the verb can be passivised (For example: 'pay attention to')

(a) She pays special attention to her customers.

(b) Special attention is paid to her customers. [the case where the object of the verb is passivised]

(c) *Her customers are paid special attention to. [the case where the object of the preposition cannot be passivised]

Type Ⅲ) The case where only the object of the preposition can be passivised (For example: 'make a fool of')

(a) John makes a fool of her.

(b) *A fool is made of her. [the case where the object of the verb cannot be passivised]

(c) She is made a fool of. [the case where the object of the preposition is passivised]

Type Ⅳ) The case where both the object of the verb and the object of the preposition cannot be passivised (For example: 'get wind of')

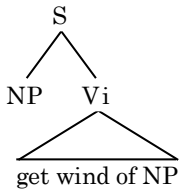
(a) The FBI got wind of his illegal activities.

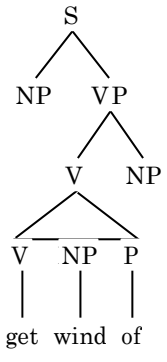
(b) *Wind was got of his illegal activities. [the case where the object of the verb cannot be passivised]

(c) *His illegal activities were got wind of. [the case where the object of the preposition cannot be passivised]

Akimoto (1985: 140)

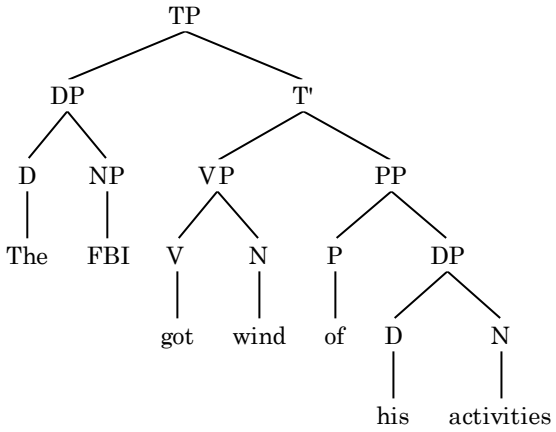
Types from I to Ⅳ and their examples given above are from Akimoto (1985: 140) but the brackets are added by the present author. In Akimoto (1985: 141), concerning the idiom 'get wind of NP', two types of tree diagrams are shown. See below. Akimoto comments that the tree on the left side is counterintuitive because the node of 'get wind of NP' is an intransitive verb. On the other hand, Akimoto comments that the analysis of the tree of the right side is not adequate because this analysis allows the passivisation of NP of the preposition. In fact, concerning the type Ⅳ idiom such as 'get wind of', neither the object of the verb and the object of the preposition can be passivised.





Akimoto (1985:142)

Now, how about the analysis given below?



In my research, Watanabe (2011), the idiomatic expressions, 'intransitive verb + preposition' such as 'look at' are dealt with. In these idiomatic expressions, the noun or the object of the preposition is not included in the idiom itself. So, the different results are produced between Akimoto (1985) and Watanabe (2011). In Watanabe (2011), the result is obtained that the more idiomatic the idioms are, the more passivised they are.

4.3.2. 'idiomaticity' and 'passivisation' (Couper-Kuhlen, E., 1979)

In section 4.3.1., it is shown that in Akimoto's approach, concerning both 'VN' and 'VNP' types of idioms, 'idiomaticity' and 'pasivisation' have something to do with each other. In Akimoto's approach, the higher the 'idiomaticity' is, the less passvised the 'VN' and 'VNP' types of idioms are. On the other hand, in my research, Watanabe (2011), idioms of 'intransitive verb + preposition' are discussed. In Akimoto's analysis, the verbs that appear in 'VN' and 'VNP' types of idioms are mainly transitive verbs. In my analysis, the verbs in the idioms which I deal with are limited to 'intransitive verbs'.

In this section, in Couper-Kuhlen's approach, the relationships between 'idiomaticity' and 'passivisation' are discussed. In Couper-Kuhlen (1979), Couper-Kuhlen describes this relationship:

The fact that idiomatic expressions do not lend themselves to passivisation is amply documented in our corpus.

Couper-Kuhlen (1979: 99)

Couper-Kuhlen shows the following sentences which cannot be passivised:

(1) a. She's just crying for the moon

b. *The moon's just being cried for …

Couper-Kuhlen (1979: 99)

As is described in section 4.3.1., the approach towards 'idiomaticity' varies from linguist to linguist. How does Couper-Kuhlen grasp the concept of 'idiomaticity'? In Couper-Kuhlen (1979), Couper-Kuhlen presents the factor which shows how high or low the combinations of 'verb + preposition + NP' are. When these combinations are strong, the passive sentence where 'NP' in the combinations is put as the subject position is not likely to appear grammatical. (Cf. Couper-Kuhlen, 1979: 99-100)

Couper-Kuhlen also relates the combinations of 'verb + preposition + NP' with 'idiomaticity'. According to the attitude of Couper-Kuhlen towards idioms, Couper-Kuhlen regards 'idiomaticity' as the combinations of 'verb + preposition + NP'. Therefore, even if some idioms have a high cohesiveness of 'verb + preposition', the cohesiveness of 'verb + preposition + NP' sometimes might be low. Couper-Kuhlen regards the cohesiveness of idioms of the form 'verb + preposition + NP' as 'idiomaticity' and concerning the relationship between 'idiomaticity' and 'passivisation', Couper-Kuhlen defines that the more idiomatic the idioms are, that is, the higher

'idiomaticity' the idioms have, the less passivised they are. On this point, the way to define 'idiomaticity' in Akimoto (1983, 1985) is the same as that in Couper-Kuhlen (1979).

Unlike the idioms dealt with in Akimoto and Couper-Kuhlen, in Chapter 4 of this dissertation, idioms in 'intransitive verb + preposition' are dealt with:

(2) a. Should we run into difficulties, we'll contact you.

b. Should difficulties be run into … you'll be contacted.

(3) a. He ran for his life.

b. *His life was run for …

Couper-Kuhlen (1979: 99)

The sentences (2) and (3) apparently involve the similar idiomatic expressions. While in (2), a passive sentence is possible (Cf. 2-b), on the other hand, in (3), it cannot be formed (Cf. 3-b). Why is there such a difference between the sentences (2) and (3)? According to the explanation of Couper-Kuhlen, in the active sentence (2-a), the idiomatic phrase 'run into' adopts more types of NPs as its object, but, on the other hand, in the active sentence (3-a), the idiomatic phrase 'run for' adopts less types of NPs as its object. Due to this restriction, in the sentences (3), the passive sentence (3-b) is not appropriate. In Couper-Kuhlen's view, as to how high or low 'idiomaticity' is, 'idiomaticity', or cohesiveness of 'verb + preposition + NP' is the main factor. Couper-Kuhlen summarises this in the following way:

Defined this way, idiomatic expressions can be said to systematically constrain

passivisation of prepositional verbs.

Couper-Kuhlen (1979: 100)

It is true that as is shown in Couper-Kuhlen as given above, how strong or weak the cohesiveness in 'verb + preposition' is determines the idiomatic expressions' passivizability. But even if there are some restrictions on the kinds of NP which can be put as an object, generally speaking, the question arises if we are allowed to assume that the more cohesiveness 'verb + preposition' gets, the more passivised the sentence which involves this phrase 'verb + preposition' is. Then, in this chapter, contrary to the view of Couper-Kuhlen, I would like to grasp 'idiomaticity' from the viewpoint of cohesiveness in 'verb + preposition'. Moreover, as was shown in section 4.2., the relationship between 'passivisation' and 'transitivity', that is, the higher the 'transitivity' of a verb is, the more passivised the verb is, and vice versa, are thought to be applicable to the expressions of 'verb + preposition', and the relationship between them might influence the degree of 'idiomaticity'. So in the following discussion, I proceed with the discussion on the assumption that the more passivised the sentence which involves the idiomatic phrase 'intransitive verb + preposition (+ NP)' is, the higher its 'idiomaticity' is, and vice versa.

4.4. On the idiomatic expressions [intransitive verb + preposition] and their passives

Cowie and Mackin (1975) classify idiomatic expressions into several types, such as [A2], [B2] and so on. In this section, I focus on [A2] type of idioms. [A2] type of idioms are composed of 'intransitive verb + preposition'. Moreover, [A2 pass] shows the

passivised pattern of [A2] type. I quote examples from the idiomatic dictionary, Cowie and Mackin (1975).

a. [A2] The Chancellor would go into these proposals very carefully.
b. [A2 pass] These proposals would be gone into very carefully.

In some cases, certain active sentences apparently look as though they were of [A2] type, but, in fact, when they are passivised, they sometimes tend to be ungrammatical.

*Disrepute has been fallen into in recent years.

As the reason for the ungrammaticality of the sentence given above, Cowie and Mackin (1975) give the following explanation:

> Sentences in which the prepositional object is part of a complex idiom are generally not passivised.
>
> Cowie and Mackin (1975: xxxix)

That is to say, when some idioms are composed not only of 'verb + preposition' but also of 'verb + preposition + NP', some of them cannot be passivised. This is similar to the statements of Couper-Kuhlen. But to repeat, this chapter of my dissertation does not discuss the 'idiomaticity' as of the idiom, 'verb + preposition + NP' but the 'idiomaticity' of the idiom, 'intransitive verb + preposition'. Thus, the types of idioms in Cowie and Mackin (1979) are limited to [A2] pattern and its passivised version [A2 pass]. Idioms composed of 'verb + preposition + NP' or idiomatic expressions which include their

objects are not discussed in my dissertation.

4.5. The results of the research

4.5.1. The results of the survey based on the idiom dictionary

Using the idiomatic dictionary, Cowie and Mackin (1975), I examined all idiomatic expressions of [A2] type which can be passivised. That is, I examined all idiomatic expressions of [A2 pass] type. [A2 pass] type of idioms take many kinds of prepositions or adjuncts. Here, 'adjuncts' mean the apparent prepositions. As I describe later, prepositions can be classified into different types in terms of function. That is, there are a number of prepositions which have both adverbial and prepositional functions. Now, prepositions and the number of idioms that contain the prepositions are listed in the tables given below:

grouping	**'Group A'**					
order	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th
preposition	on	at	for	to	over	with
total	70	63	45	44	33	29

grouping	**'Group B'**						
order	15th	16th	17th	18th	19th	20th	21st
preposition	off	around	without	above	beyond	onto	across
total	3	3	2	1	1	1	1

grouping	'Group C'							
order	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th	13th	14th
preposition	into	against	about	in	of	through	from	after
total	22	18	15	12	10	10	10	6

Table1. Total numbers of prepositions which are used as part of the idiomatic expressions 'intransitive verb + preposition' in Cowie and Mackin (1975)

What is listed in Table 1 is the kinds of [A2] type of idioms that constitute the passivised [A2 pass] type. For example, the preposition 'on' is used in the seventy [A2] type of idioms which can be passivised. From Table 1, we can recognize this as 'Group A', which includes many prepositions: from the first place, the preposition 'on', to the sixth place, the preposition 'with'. These prepositions appear with more than about thirty verbs. We also find another group of prepositions, i.e. 'Group B': from the fifteenth place, the preposition 'off' to the twenty-first place, the preposition 'across'. These prepositions appear with less than six verbs. Other prepositions are of in-between frequency, and I will call them 'Group C'.[4]

4.5.2. The results of the survey based on the corpus research

[4] The prepositions treated in section 4 are divided into three groups such as Group A, Group B, and Group C. I researched the patterns which can be passivized in the idioms of the form 'intransitive verb + preposition' in an idiom dictionary, Cowie and Mackin (1975). Group A indicates the top-six prepositions concerning the number of the prepositions in the idiom of the form 'intransitive verb + preposition'. Group B indicates prepositions which take the lower position in the number of appearance in the idiom of the form 'intransitive verb + preposition'. Group C is in between. Concerning the prepositions among Group A, Group B, and Group C, there is a difference in the number of appearances.

In the previous section, 4.5.1., it was shown what kinds of prepositions [A2 pass] type of idiomatic expressions take. That is, by way of using a dictionary, Cowie and Mackin (1975), it was shown how many verbs apparent prepositions, given in Table 1 in section 4.5.1., are connected with. In addition to the connection listed in the dictionary, it is necessary to examine how many examples there are as attested examples in the database. In order to do so, the research which uses a corpus is needed. Generally speaking, intuitively, it is estimated that the number of the combinations between intransitive verbs and 'Group A' prepositions is larger than that of the combinations between intransitive verbs and 'Group B' prepositons, but it is just an estimation. As we saw in section 4.3., we can expect that there are some relationships between 'passivisation' and 'idiomaticity', that is, that we can expect that the higher the 'idiomaticity' in idioms is, the more passivised the idioms are. In the following, I would like to show how many prepositions we have in such idioms as those composed of 'intransitive verb + preposition', by using a corpus with real examples. In the following tables 2 to 4, when idioms in 'intransitive verb + preposition' are passivised, it is shown how many examples are related to what kinds of prepositions. The prepositions in table 2 to 4 are listed in the order of the prepositions in Table 1.

This research is based on the BNC corpus, and I examined passivised idioms composed of 'intransitive verb + preposition' such as < be * looked at >, for example. In this section, all the relevant examples in the BNC corpus are not listed, but as an example, the type of [*be* + looked prep.] is listed. Concerning < be > in [be looked at], this *be* is in the infinitive, and regarding syntactic construction, < aux. > or < to > the auxiliary verb or to-infinitives is located before < be >. In the parentheses, file names and numbers are given to the sentences in the BNC corpus. Passivised idiomatic

expressions are shown in italics.

Table 2. The number of passivised idioms composed of 'look + preposition'

look	on	at	for	to	over	into	through
(aux.) or (to) be + looked	22	236	26	5	2	23	0
is + looked	5	24	10	1	0	3	0
am + looked	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
are + looked	7	30	1	1	0	3	0
was + looked	9	20	2	1	1	3	0
were + looked	1	16	2	1	0	0	0
total	44	326	41	9	3	32	0

Some of the typical examples are as given below. The letters and the numbers in the parentheses such as 'ADS, 1012' represent the file name and the sentence number listed in the BNC corpus.

[be looked on: 22]

(a) …, when it would be more likely that her absence would *be looked on* leniently. (ADS, 1012)

[be looked at: 236]

(b) Not an object to *be looked at* and admired. (AO8, 1248)

[be looked for: 26]

(c) … during which time any sign of movement in Duckmanton South box would *be looked for*. (AMR, 213)

[be looked over: 2]

(d) …, and his manusucript will *be looked over* by Tom Hutchinson being finalized. (AP1, 1256)

[be looked to: 5]

(e) …, then the future could *be looked to* with confidence and hope. (BM2, 76)

[be looked into: 23]

(f) This needs to *be looked into.* (A0D, 2440)

Table 3. The number of passivised idioms composed of 'go + preposition'

go	on	at	for	to	over	with	into	in	through
(aux.) or (to) be + gone	2(0)	0	18(0)	3(0)	4	1(0)	4(1)	5(0)	20
is + gone	0	0	0	4(0)	0	3(0)	1(0)	3(0)	2
am + gone	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
are + gone	1	0	2(0)	2(0)	0	2(0)	1(0)	2(0)	1
was + gone	2(0)	0	13(0)	5(1)	1	0	5(0)	0	4(3)
were + gone	0	0	1(0)	2(1)	0	3(0)	0	3(0)	1
total	5(1)	0	34(0)	16(2)	5	9(0)	11(1)	9(0)	28(27)

Some of the typical examples are as given below:

[are gone on 1]

(g) Roger and the young mason *are gone on* together for Ramsey. (G0M, 145)

[were gone to 1]

(h) Extraordinary lengths *were* therefore *gone to* to cajole and inspire the bewildered Indians, … (C90, 1211)

[was gone over 1]

(i) …. and most of it *was gone over* twice to get an even coverage of bright intense colour. (CN4, 465)

[be gone into 1]

(j) …. which made the brutal exploitation of native South American Indians so attractive to Spain need not *be gone into* here. (ACL, 876)

[be gone through 20]

(k) It just had to *be gone through*. (C86, 2946)

Table 4. The number of passivised idioms composed of 'come + preposition'

come	on	at	for	to	over	in	with	through	by
(aux.) or (to) be + come	4(0)	1(0)	0	3(0)	0	2	0	0	0
is + come	5(1)	0	0	23(1)	0	0	0	0	0
am + come	0	0	0	4(0)	0	0	0	0	0
are + come	8(1)	0	1(0)	9(1)	0	1	0	0	0
was + come	3(0)	2(0)	2(0)	23(0)	2(0)	0	0	0	1
were + come	1(0)	0	0	11(0)	2(0)	0	0	0	0
total	21(2)	3(0)	3(0)	73(2)	4(0)	3	0	0	1

Some of the typical examples are as given below:

[is come on 1]

(l) Aye, I know where it *is come on* up here. (KE1, 1954)

[are come on 1]

(m) Let me see how you *are come on* in your writing. (FU4, 232)

[is come to 1]

(n) It is sensibly debated and a sensible solution *is come to.* (EFD, 244)

[are come to 1]

(o) …. is a sorry pass we *are come to* when a lady is robbed of the clothes … (HH1, 3061)

[be come in 1]

(p) And some times the ship would *be come in* quite close to us …. (K7E, 190)

[are come in 1]

(q) … er *are* daddy *come in* and daddy come out. (KD1, 1555)

4.6. Analysis

4.6.1. The classification of the prepositions in idiomatic expressions [intransitive verb + preposition]

Using the results given in Table 1, we analyze prepositions of the two types A and B. As stated before, Group A includes such prepositions as 'on, at, for, over, to, and with'.

Group B includes such prepositions as 'off, around, without, above, beyond, onto, and across'. What is the difference between Group A and Group B? Group A is the set of prepositions which are monosyllabic and are 'prototypical' prepositions. They are originally prepositions and later they can be used as adverbs. For example, concerning one preposition 'at' in 'Group A' prepositions, we see that 'at' is used as an adverb as early as in *c1325* according to *OED* (reprinted in 1978: 531):

c1325 Metr. Hom. 73 Sainte Makary hard say, At thai wald come.

(s.v. *OED*, at, *adv.* or *conj.*)

On the other hand, the prepositional use of 'at' is found before *c1325* in *OED*. Likewise, concerning the preposition 'over' in 'Group A' prepositions, the earliest prepositional use of 'over' is in *c888* according to *OED* (reprinted in 1978: 284). On the other hand, the earliest adverbial use of 'over' is in *c893* according to *OED* (reprinted in 1978: 283).

Next, Group B is the set of prepositions which are 'adverbial' prepositions. They are originally adverbs and are now used as prepositions. There are many passivised examples of idioms which include the prepositions in Group A. (Cf. Tables 1)

Dixon (2005) states as given below:

… We discussed verbs that must take an inherent preposition before an NP. ・・・ Quite a range of prepositions are involved and the verbs come from a fair array of types, e.g. *deal with, rely on, decide on, think about, listen to, look at, wonder at, dawdle over, search for.*

Dixon (2005:369)

As is shown in section 3.2.2., Dixon (2005: 290-293) presents the idea of 'inherent preposition verbs' when he discusses 'transitivity' or 'passivisation'. Regarding the characteristic of 'inherent preposition verbs', this means that a verb in the idioms can take fixed or regular preposition. Dixon uses the idea of 'inherent preposition', which is similar to the 'fixed' or 'regular' prepositions, and Dixon includes the prepositions such as 'with, on, about, to, at, over, and for' as 'inherent' prepositions.[5]

4.6.2. 'gradience' among prepositions

Judging from the data of table 2, we can order prepositions which can be used in the passivizable idioms of the form in 'intransitive verb + preposition'. The order is 'at > on > for > into > to > over'. As for the symbol '>', the preposition on the left side of the symbol '>' is more likely to be passivised than that on the right side of the symbol. For example, the idiom with the preposition 'at' is more likely to be passivised than the idiom with the preposition 'on'. These prepositions agree with the prepositions of Group A in the idioms in Table 1. That is, prepositions in Group A can really be likely to have the examples of passives. Of course, the verbs with which these prepositions are used to make up idioms are limited to certain types, and the passivised examples are also limited to certain types. Among the cases of the verb 'look', from Table 2, the case of < (aux.) or (to) be looked at > is prominent, and the number is 236. Concerning the form < be looked at >, < be > refers to a bare infinitive, and before < be >, an auxiliary verb or 'to' infinitive appears. So, the form < (aux.) or (to) be looked at > is given. On the other hand, the cases of < (aux.) or (to) be looked on > are fewer than that of < (aux.) or (to) be

[5] According to the *OED* data, concerning the Group A prepositions such as 'at' and 'over', the examples as adverbs follow the examples as prepositions in the period of the appearance in the *OED*. Concerning the 'inherent preposition verbs' quoted by Dixon (2005: 369), the prepositions apply to the Group A prepositions. This fact supports the discussion of this section.

looked at >, and the number is 22. Then, what is the difference in NP between the passive subject of < look at > type and the passive subject of < look on > type? The difference depends on the kind of object NP in < look at > type and < look on > type. The kind of NP, which comes in the examples of corpus, can be classified as in Table 5, and the table shows when the type < look at NP > is passivised and it appears in the form < NP (aux.) or (to) be looked at >:

Table 5: The types of object NP in < NP (aux.) or (to) be looked at >

MATTER type	39	matter, issue, situation, problem, case, etc.
THING type	15	something, everything, some things, etc.
SPACE type	6	area, the oilfields

In Table 5 given above, which is about the passivised pattern of < look at NP >, MATTER and THING type are prominent NPs. On the other hand, regarding the passivised patterns of < look on NP >, MATTER, SPACE, and THING type are not prominent NPs, so, there are no prominent NPs which can be grouped together. Thus, we find that the examples of MATTER and THING type are overwhelming in number as the examples of passivised subjects of < look at >. Recall that in this section of this dissertation, contrary to the opinions of Couper-Kuhlen, we do not regard the strings 'verb + preposition + NP' as idioms. That is, we do not regard the whole of 'look at NP (MATTER or THING type)' as idioms.

How about the idiom of 'go + preposition'? The number of the passivised idioms, composed of 'go through' is larger than that of other idioms listed in Table 3, but concerning the characteristic of the prepositions 'through', 'through' is in between the prepositions of Group A and Group B. (Cf. Table 1) This is a special case in that the preposition 'through' has characteristics which mainly have connections with the verbs

which involves motion. In the case of 'come + preposition', the number of the examples of this type is very small.

On the other hand, the common preposition which 'look, go, and come' can take is the preposition 'on', and <look on NP>, <go on NP>, and <come on NP> are highly likely to be passivised. In 'look on' [= regard, consider], 'go on' [= continue an activity], and 'come on' [= make progress], it is difficult to infer the meaning directly from the original meaning of the sum of the words such as [look + on], which compose idioms of the form 'intransitive verb + preposition'.

Moreover, in the cases of 'look', 'go', and 'come', we can point out that it is difficult to infer the meaning directly from the parts of the idioms of which these verbs are part. That is, it is difficult to infer the meaning of the idioms such as 'look at' [= examine], 'go through' [= examine, perform, review], and 'come on' [= make progress]. In this way, idioms whose meanings are difficult to infer from the string of the words in the idiom are highly likely to be passivised.

From a semantic point of view, we can conclude how much strong 'idiomaticity' is based on the connection of 'intransitive verb + preposition'. On this point, we can find out the relationship between 'passivisation' and 'idiomaticity'.

On the other hand, what pieces of information can we get from the prepositions of Group B in Table 1 in section 4.5.1.? From the idiom dictionary, Cowie and Mackin (1975), I picked out the verbs which can be connected with the prepositions of Group B ('across', 'onto', 'beyond', 'above', 'without', 'around', and 'off'), which can compose in 'intransitive verb + preposition', and which can be passivised. These examples are shown as follows:

'stumble *across'*, 'leech *onto'*, 'look *beyond'*, 'rise *above'*

'do *without*', 'reckon *without*'

'get *around*', 'skirt *around*', 'talk *around*'

'feed *off*', 'score *off*', 'swear *off*'

As with the cases in 'look', 'come', and 'go', I did research into how many cases of passivisation in 'intransitive verb + preposition' are possible in the BNC corpus. The appropriate examples in the BNC corpus are given below, and the number given in brackets is the number of tokens in the BNC corpus:

[be done without: 4], [is skirted around: 1], [be stumbled across: 1]

In this way, concerning the prepositions of Group B, the number of verbs which can be passivised in the idiom dictionary, Cowie and Mackin (1975), is small, and the number of the real examples in the BNC corpus is also small. Moreover, concerning 'do without', we can infer the meaning from the original string of words in the idiom, and regarding 'skirt around' or 'stumble over', since we know the original meaning of such verbs as 'skirt' or 'stumble', the change of the meaning of the entire idiom is not so big.

4.6.3. The analysis of the intransitive verbs other than 'look', 'come', and 'go'

In addition to the intransitive verbs such as 'look', 'go', and 'come', concerning how verbs other than 'look', 'come', and 'go' are connected with prepositions both of Group A and Group B, I would like to study this in this section. Concerning the verbs such as 'swim', 'travel', 'dive', and 'rest', there appear to be no cases where these verbs are connected with prepositions both of Group A and Group B. As for the cases where

prepositions both of Group A and Group B are connected with intransitive verbs other than 'look', 'come' and 'go', and the idioms composed of 'intransitive verb + preposition' are passivised, the number of the appearances of passivisation is shown below. Regarding Table 6 and Table 7, the examples of connection between intransitive verb and preposition are listed on the upper part and, on the other hand, the numbers of the lower part show the numbers which I found out through research using the BNC corpus:

Table 6. : The examples of connection between intransitive verb and preposition of Group A and the number of them

sit on	walk on	walk over	walk to	talk at	talk over	talk to	write for	write on
7	5	5	2	1	2	12	2	5
write to	stand over	sing with	act on	die on	work at	work for	work on	work over
6	1	1	19	1	17	8	35	6
work to	work with							
3	4							

Table 7. : The examples of connection between intransitive verb and preposition of Group B and the number of them

slip off	sit around	walk around	write off	fall off	work off
1	1	2	72	1	4

Fundamentally, the number of idiomatic expressions which are composed of prepositions of Group A is larger than that of Group B. Concerning the idioms composed of Group B prepositions, the cases of 'write off' are prominent:

write off: [example: You may be written off as a malingerer or a neurotic ・・・(A92, 111)]

The alphabet and the numbers written in the parenthesis given above are the file name and the number of sentences in the BNC corpus. In this case, 'write off' is the meaning

of [regard something as a failure] and it is difficult to infer the meaning directly from the original sequence of words in the idiom. As an exception, the preposition 'off' is likely to have a tendency towards the prepositions of Group A. However, in general, there is 'gradience' between the preposition of Group A and the preposition of Group B from the viewpoint of 'passivisation' or 'idiomaticity'.

So far I have observed the prepositions in idiomatic expressions, composed of 'intransitive verb + preposition'. Lastly, I pick up the examples of idiomatic expressions composed of 'intransitive verb + adverb', and I would like to compare idiomatic expressions of 'intransitive verb + preposition' with those of 'intransitive verb + adverb'. As an example, I would like to compare 'call on (in this case, 'on' is preposition)' with 'call up (in this case, 'up' is an adverb)'.

(1) a. I called on John today.

b. *I called John on today.

(2) a. I called up John today.

b. I called John up today.

Ando (2008: 55-56)

In (1), we cannot move a particle 'on' after the NP, but in (2), we can move a particle 'up' after the NP. This fact is thought to indicate another factor which is irrelevant to 'idiomaticity', or the degree of the idiomatic cohesion. In the particle movement case of (2), we can move the adverb 'up' after the NP because 'up' is originally an adverb, and adverbs are not basically limited to the place before NP. On the other hand, recall that prepositions have to occur before NP.[6]

[6] Concerning 'call up' in (2), 'up' is clearly an adverb and in this case, the particle movement is feasible

In the previous section, concerning idiomatic expressions composed of 'intransitive verb + preposition', when the sentences of such idiomatic expressions can be likely to be passivised, the prepositions concerned are the ones which are categorized as Group A prepositions.

Moreover, in this section, I insist that the more prototypical a preposition is, the higher the 'idiomaticity' as the degree of connection between intransitive verb and preposition is. As an example, I picked out the passivised examples of 'call on' or 'call up' in the BNC corpus. For example, concerning the case of < (aux.) or (to) be called on >, 15 cases are adopted, and concerning the case of < (aux.) or (to) be called up >, 41 cases are adopted. From the result of the analysis in the previous section, prepositions of Group A are likely to be passivised, but why are the sentences of idiomatic expressions which include the particle 'up' which does not appear in Group A likely to be passivised? This is because semantically, 'call up' works as a transitive verb, and NP after the transitive verb is thought to be a direct object of a transitive verb. It is a matter of course that the direct object of a transitive verb works as a subject of a passivised sentence. This is why concerning 'call up', the number of the passivised cases is large. In my research, the sentences of idiomatic expressions which include 'adverbial prepositions' are less likely to be passivised, but regarding the cases of 'call up', the connection between a verb and a particle is a question, and in this section, we do not deal with this question.[7]

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but, on the other hand, concerning 'call on' in (1), the particle movement is unfeasible. By using the fact of (1), the degree of 'idiomaticity' can be explained. The example (2) is separate from the discussion of 'idiomaticity'.

[7] Adverbial prepositions indicate the prepositions of Group C. The sentences which include the idiom of the form 'intransitive verb + adverbial preposition' are less likely to be passivized. In the case of the adverb 'up', the number of examples where the sentences which include the idiom 'call up' can be passivized is larger. This is because the idiom 'call up' is used as a one word transitive verb. Concerning the sentences which include the idiom 'call up', unlike the case of idiom 'call on', the particle movement is feasible. It is difficult to think of both the discussion of particle movement and the discussion of the 'idiomaticity' as the same.

4.7. Summary of Chapter 4

In this Chapter, it was shown that among prepositions, there are prototypical prepositions and adverbial prepositions. This is related to the concept of 'gradience'.

I researched into the dictionary, Cowie and Mackin (1975), and classified prepositions into three types such as Group A, Group B, and others in between.

The result is like this. The sentences composed of idiomatic expressions which include monosyllabic and 'prototypical prepositions (Group A)' are likely to be passivised, and, on the other hand, the sentences composed of idiomatic expressions which include 'more adverbial prepositions (Group B)' are less likely to be passivised.

Moreover, considering the relationships with 'passivisation' and 'idiomaticity', we claim that the higher 'idiomaticity' (which means, in this dissertation, the degree of the connection between intransitive verb + preposition) is, the more passivizable the sentence composed of the idiom 'intransitive verb + preposition' is. Furthermore, considering the relationships with 'passivisation' and 'transitivity', three characteristics such as 'idiomaticity', 'passivisation' and 'transitivity' are in proportion to one another.

Concerning the relationships between 'transitivity' and 'passivisation', I would like to show some examples and to add comments.

(a) I kicked the ball.

(a') The ball was kicked.

(b) I kicked at the ball.

(b') The ball was kicked at.

The sentences (a) and (b) can be passivised. In contrast, concerning 'transitivity', there

is a difference between the sentence (a) and the sentence (b) about the degree of 'transitivity'. The degree of 'transitivity' in the sentence (a) is higher than that in the sentence (b). If 'transitivity' and 'passivisation' are in proportion to each other, should we say that there is a difference between the sentence (a) and the sentence (b), concerning 'passivisation'? The answer is no. Concerning 'passivisation', this is a dichotomic concept and this only shows whether or not a sentence is passivised. On the other hand, the concept of 'transitivity' is a matter of degree. Regarding both a sentence which can be passivised and a sentence which cannot be passivised, we can clearly say that the former is higher than the latter in 'transitivity'. Concerning two sentences both of which can be passivised, the 'transitivity' of both of them is higher than that of the sentence which cannot be passivised, but there may be a difference between these two sentences in 'transitivity'. In general, we can say that 'passivisation' and 'transitivity' are in proportion to each other, and 'passivisation' is, in a sense, a dichotomic concept and that, on the other hand, 'transitivity' is a matter of degree.[8]

I researched the intransitive verbs of 'look', 'go', and 'come', which describe the movement of our daily lives. Next, I studied other intransitive verbs which also describe movements of our daily lives. I found that they are in line with such intransitive verbs as 'look', 'go', and 'come'. This fact suggests that the characteristics of prepositions have a strong influence on 'idiomaticity' and 'passivisation'.

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8 The idea of 'passivisability' indicates whether or not the sentences which include idioms of the form 'intransitive verb + preposition' can be passivised. In this sense, 'passivisability' is based on the 'all-or-none' principle. However, concerning the sentences which include idioms of the form 'intransitive verb + preposition' and which can be passivised, some sentences have a large number of examples in the BNC corpus and others do not. The term 'passivisation' indicates the difference of the degree concerning the number of appearances. Similarly, 'transitivity' is a matter of degree. In this situation, the higher the 'idiomaticity' is, the higher the 'passivisation' is in at least the discussion of the form 'intransitive verb + preposition' and vice versa.

Chapter 5 'Gradience' between prepositions and adjectives

5.1. Introduction

In this chapter, I would like to introduce 'gradience' between prepositions and adjectives, based on some previous studies. In Aarts (2007: 156-157), Aarts quotes several linguists' ideas about 'gradience' between prepositions and adjectives. Aarts points out that concerning the grammatical relations among several words given below, which are discussed in Huddleston and Pullum (2002), the problem is whether or not these words can have one-to-one correspondences to either category, i.e. adjective or preposition: 'like', 'unlike', 'due', 'near', 'for', 'worth', and 'close' (Huddleston and Pullum *et al.*, 2002: 606f.).

Moreover, according to Aarts, in Ross (1972: 316-319), 'gradience' between verbs and nouns is discussed as given below:

Verb > Present participle > Perfect participle > Passive participle > **Adjective** > Preposition (?) > 'adjectival noun' > **Noun**

Ross (1972 : 316)

In particular, Ross regards 'gradience' between prepositions and adjectives as given below:

proud > opposite > **near** > like > in

Ross (1972: 318-319), quoted in Aarts (2007: 156)

Aarts deals with 'gradience' between prepositions and adjectives, which is what

Aarts calls Intersective Gradience (= 'IG'), and, specifically, Aarts focuses on the word 'near'. It is located in an intermediate position in Ross's 'squish' given above, based on the syntactic criteria such as 'Preposition deletion', 'PP Postponing' and 'Pied Piping'.

But, treatments of the word 'near' vary from linguist to linguist. See for example Maling (1983). Maling is a linguist of 'Transformational grammar' and probably Maling does not accept the idea of 'gradience'. Aarts also gives an acute comment about this:

> Maling adopts an Aristotelian either / or categorical stance by classifying *near* as an adjective, and essentially ignores the fact that this element syntactically resembles a preposition, by explaining away its complement – taking properties through an appeal to the notion of syntactic relic. Aarts (2007: 157)

The details of the assertion of Maling (1983) are discussed in section 5.2.1.

In Anderson (1997), Anderson agrees with Maling's idea that the word 'near' is an adjective, but Anderson uses his original functors to show that there is 'gradience' between adjectives and prepositions:

{P : N}	{(P : N) ;}	{(P : N) :}	{; (P : N)}	{ }
close	near	like	worth	at
due				

Anderson (1997: 74)

The details of Anderson's functors and his ways of thought are discussed in section 5.2.2., but the functors as given above show that the word 'near' is rather adjective-like.

In Chapter 4, I discussed 'gradience' between adverbs (adverbial prepositions) and prepositions (central prepositions), and in Chapter 6, I will discuss 'gradience' between

adjectives and verbs. Thus, Chapter 5 is the intermediate position between Chapter 4 and Chapter 6, because the relationships between central prepositions and central adjectives are mainly discussed in Chapter 5.

5.2. Previous studies on the relationships with prepositions and adjectives

5.2.1. Adjectives and prepositions 1 ('transitive adjectives') (Maling, J., 1983)

There are several words whose word classes or categories cannot be decided clearly. Intuitively, we sometimes notice that these words are either prepositions or adjectives, but especially, when we consider their syntactic or morphological behaviors, we can find out whether or not our intuitions towards these words as to their parts of speech are valid. In my dissertation, I take a position where there is 'gradience' among words with respect to word classes or parts of speech. But in Maling (1983), Maling does not recognize 'gradience' of words and adopts the position where categories of words are clearly decided in her 'all-or-none' approach. This is because Maling takes a rigorous view of the syntactic and morphological approach but not that of the semantic approach.

Maling compares three words such as 'like', 'worth', and 'near' from a synchronic viewpoint (Cf. Maling, 1983: 266ff.).

First, Maling picks up the behaviors of the word 'like'. Taking its behavior into consideration, Maling observes two points: the position of adverb 'enough', and the case where the word 'like' is located before nouns:

(1) a. Chris looks enough like you to be your twin.

b. That's an *enough likely story.

c. Chris looks *like enough you to be your twin.

d. That's a likely enough story.

e. They look {enough alike alike enough} to be twins.

f. How much are they alike?

g. How much are they *old? Maling (1983: 266)

Maling examines the behaviors of the similar words such as 'likely' and 'alike' to assert that the word 'like' should be a preposition. Both of the words 'likely' and 'alike' have adjectival and adverbial usages, but in (1), the adjectival usage is adopted. With respect to the position of the word 'enough', there is a difference between the adjectival usage and the premodificational use. For adjectives, as we can see from the sentences (1-b) and (1-d), the word 'enough' cannot premodify 'likely'. Of course, for the word 'alike', the premodificational use of the word 'enough' is allowed as we can see in the sentence (1-e), but generally the premodificational use is not allowed.

How should we think about the word 'like'? Comparing the sentence (1-a) with (1-c), we recognize that the word 'enough' is allowed to premodify the word 'like'. Since Maling takes the placement of the word 'enough' after adjectives as one of the characteristic of adjectives, this might make a contradiction when the word 'like' is regarded as in the category of adjective in this situation. However, there still remains a problem with respect to the words 'like' and 'alike'. As to the word 'alike', there are two possibilities for the placement of the word 'enough' in the sentence (1-e). According to Maling, this is a special case. Maling lists two sentences such as (1-f) and (1-g) to show how special the word 'alike' is, though it is absolutely an adjective in Maling's view. When we try to express the degrees in such a sentence as (1-g), we simply say like this: 'How old are they?'. In contrast, with respect to the word 'alike', expressions such as '*How alike are they?' is not allowed.

Moreover, Maling shows the case where the word 'like' is put in the premodificational position like this:

(2) a. The like-subject constraint was proposed by Perlmutter.

b. You'll need boots, raincoats, and the like.

c. *Lee bought a new car and I bought {a the} like. Maling (1980: 267)

It is true that in the sentence (2-a), the word 'like' appears to be located in the pronominal position, but how about the sentence (2-b)? Maling's assertion is given below:

It seems to me that the phrase *and the like* is best analyzed as a NP with null head, and that *like* is in the position of an adjective. But such pronominal uses of *like* are clearly not productive. Maling (1980: 267)

In other words, the pronominal use of the word 'like' is a special case and then the sentences (2-a) and (2-b) are exceptional.

As is stated above, based on the discussions of Maling, the word 'like' has two aspects, namely, the characteristics both of adjectives and prepositions. In my opinion, from the data given by Maling, the word class of the word 'like' is difficult to decide, but Maling regards it as a preposition:

In other words, it is unnecessary to assign dual categorization to *like*: one as P and one as A. Rather, we can give a single assignment as P. Maling (1980: 268)

Secondly, Maling picks up the behavior of the word 'worth', though Maling regards the word 'worth' as a preposition:

As counterintuitive as it may at first appear, *worth* is best analysed as a preposition…. I conclude that analyzing *worth* as a P is more a problem for the linguist's conscious mind than for his unconscious. Maling (1983: 268)

The reasons why Maling regards the word 'worth' as a preposition are mainly two-fold: one is the problem as to the placement of the word 'enough', and the other is the problem as to the relationships with other words.

(3) a. Sailing is great fun, but owning your own boat isn't enough worth trouble for me to want to buy one.

b. *Sailing is great fun, but owning your own boat isn't worth enough the trouble for me to want to buy one.

c. ??Sailing is great fun, but owning your boat isn't worth the trouble enough for me to want to buy one.

d. Owning your own boat isn't sufficiently worth the trouble. Maling (1980: 268)

From the result of the sentence (3-a), we can find out that the word 'worth' has the prepositional function, because concerning the placement of the word 'enough', the order '*worth enough' in the sentence (3-b) is not allowed. In other words, if it is allowed, the word category of 'worth' is an adjective. In the sentence (3-d), when an adverb 'sufficiently' is used instead of the word 'enough', the sentence is grammatical. This is because an adverb can modify a preposition.

How does Maling treat the coocurrence relationships which show that the word 'worth' is a preposition?

(4) a. *Lee is worth.

b. It's worth the time and trouble.

c. It's very much worth it.

d. It seems five times more worth it now than it did last year. Maling (1980: 269)

The word 'worth' cannot be located in the predicative position without degree words or pronouns. If we regard the word 'worth' as an adjective, the form of the sentence (4-a) should be allowed, but, actually, it is not allowed.

As was discussed above, Maling regards the word 'worth' as a preposition because of both the placement of the adverb 'enough' in front of it and the problem concerning the coocurrence.

Thirdly, Maling picks up the behavior of the word 'near'. To make a long story short, Maling regards the word 'near' as an adjective. Maling picks up four points like these: the availability of the comparative and superlative forms, the placement of the word 'enough' after it, the attributive use of the word 'near', and the co-ocurrence relationships.

(5) a. Don't go any nearer (to) the water.

b. Kim put the lamp near enough to the bed to read.

c. Kim put the lamp *enough near (to) the bed.

d. the near shore

e. Lee pulled the child near (to) her. Maling (1980: 270-271)

From the sentence (5-a), we find that the word 'near' has the comparative degree 'nearer'. This is an adjectival characteristic. Concerning the sentence (5-b), there appears the order 'near enough', which is allowed due to the adjectival characteristic of the word 'near'. Regarding the sentence (5-c), attributive 'enough' is allowed for the word 'near'. This is also an adjectival characteristic of the word 'near'. With respect to the sentence (5-e), Maling discusses the problems about locative or directional phrases. As is the case with the words 'close' and 'far', the word 'near' co-occurs with the verbs like 'pull' and 'put'. According to Maling's analysis, words which behave like such words as 'close' and 'far' are adjectives in Maling's view.

5.2.2. Adjectives and prepositions 2 (Anderson, J. M., 1997)

Not only Maling (1983) but also Anderson (1997) asserts that some adjectives have some characteristics of verbs. These adjectives are what they call 'transitive adjectives'. 'transitive adjectives' are dealt with as adjectives which have an 'unmarked object' whose name is described in Anderson (1997: 74). At the starting point of this section, some 'transitive adjectives' are introduced. Anderson quotes sentences Jespersen (1924) gives as shown below:

(1) He is not worth his salt.

(2) He is like his father.

(3) The bowl is near the fireplace. Jespersen (1924: 163)

Of course, in traditional grammar, the words such as 'worth', 'like', and 'near' are

regarded simply as prepositions. But they not only take 'bare' NPs, that is, what Anderson calls, 'unmarked object', but also they show adjective-like tendencies.

In Anderson (1997), Anderson tries to deal with them by using numerical values. I would like to introduce Anderson's ways of using numerical values, and to discuss the issue under his assumption. Anderson uses several 'functors' to show 'gradience' of word classes as given below:

{P}	{P ; N}	{P : N}	{N ; P}	{N}	{ }
aux	*verb*	*adjective*	*noun*	*name*	*functor*

Anderson (1997: 72)

The symbol 'P' means the characteristics of predicates, that is, the predicativity of words. On the other hand, the symbol 'N' means the characteristics of nominals. The functor symbol, that is, '{ }', plays the role of evaluating the degrees of the words with respect to whether they take predicative characteristics or nominal ones. The symbol ' ; ' denotes a sign of inequality. For example, for 'P ; N', the degree of 'P' is larger than that of 'N'. Similarly, for 'N ; P', the degree of 'N' is larger than that of 'P'. In contrast, the symbol ' : ' denotes a sign of equality. For example, for 'P : N', the degree of 'P' is equivalent to that of 'N'. Moreover, Anderson uses the weightings to show that there is 'gradience' from predicates to nouns as given below:

4P :: 0N	3P :: 1N	2P :: 2N	1P :: 3N	0P :: 4N	0P :: 0N
aux	verb	adjective	noun	name	functor

Anderson (1997: 72)

The symbol ' :: ' is a sign of proportion. For example, on verbs, the writing '3P :: 1N' indicates the ratio of three in predicative elements to one in nominal elements. The relationships with proportions and components are described below:

X alone = 4 X ; = 3 X : = 2 ; X = 1 absence of X = 0

Anderson (1997: 72)

Anderson uses 5 degrees from '0' to '4' to show 'gradience' from predicative to nominal characteristics. When two components, 'P' and 'N' are given, each of them is regarded as 'X', and the proportion of the category 'X' is larger than that of another, the symbol 'X ;' is used and given the quantities of the ratio, '3'. Of course, Anderson bases standards of judging on the ratios, '4' and '0'. The symbol ' : ' indicates the intermediate position, and then 'X :' is given the ratio '2'. The words in the sentences (1) to (3), that is, 'worth', 'like' and 'near' are regarded as prepositions in traditional grammar, but how does Anderson deal with or classify them in his own quantitative way?

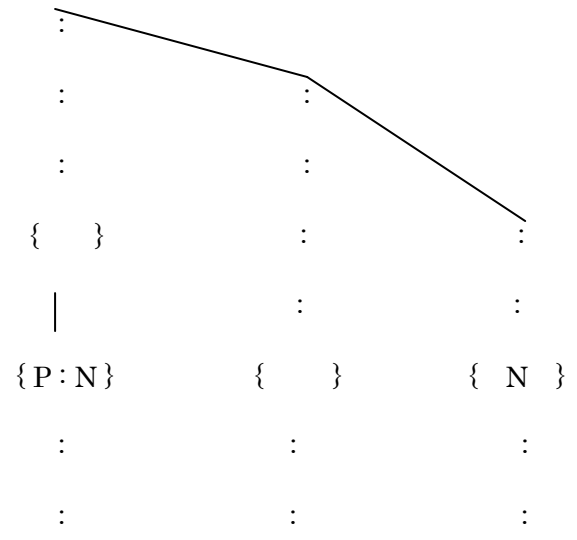
Anderson adopts Huddleston's assertion that the words 'worth', 'like', and 'near' are 'at the borderline between the two classes' of adjectives and prepositions, and that the classification of the word 'near' 'remains somewhat indeterminate' (Huddleston, 1984 :348).

Both Huddleston(1984) and Anderson(1997) focus on the characteristics of the word 'near'. This is because 'near' has a morphological comparative and a superlative form. Moreover, Anderson compares the word 'near' with another word 'close'. The word 'close' does not have the prepositional usage at least in traditional grammar. It has either an adjectival or adverbial usage. Of course, it also has the verbal use. What is the difference between the word 'close' and the word 'near'?

(4) He buried it close(st) to the fence. Anderson (1997: 75)

From the sentence (4), we can recognize that the word 'close' requires a preposition, in this sentence, 'to' before a NP, 'the fence'. In contrast, from the sentence (3), we can recognize that the word 'near' does not require a preposition before a NP, the 'fireplace'. Anderson (1997) illustrates with a diagram which uses his idea of 'functors'.

With respect to the sentence (4), the word 'close' requires the preposition 'to', but, on the other hand, with respect to the sentence (3), the word 'near' does not require any preposition. In this situation, the word 'close' is simply a kind of degree modifier to the following PP, but the word 'near' is what Maling and Anderson call a 'transitive adjective', because the word 'near' is located in a predicative position, and it also requires its object, in other words, what Anderson calls an 'unmarked object':



Anderson (1997: 75)

Moreover, how does Anderson think about 'gradience' among the words, 'near', 'like', and

'worth'? Anderson mainly follows the Maling's ideas (Cf. 5.2.1.).

First, Anderson recognizes that the intensifiers such as 'very' and 'how' work when we decide that the word modified by them is regarded as an adjective:

(5) a. very like, very near, *very worth

b. how like, how near, *how worth Anderson (1997: 76)

With respect to (5), the words 'like' and 'near' can be emphasized by the intensifiers 'very' and 'how', but , on the other hand, the word 'worth' cannot be.

(6) a. ? The box is near enough the fence.

b. The box is near enough to the fence.

c. The box is near enough.

d. *Bill is like enough the portrait.

e. Sailing is great fun, but owning your own boat isn't enough worth the trouble for me to want to buy one. Anderson (1997: 78)

As the criterion of the prepositional characteristics, 'enough – shift' to post head position is adopted. With respect to the sentence (6-d), the word 'like' cannot be allowed to take 'enough – shift'. In contrast, with respect to the sentence (6-e), the word 'worth' can be allowed to do so. What is more, the word 'near' is in between, because in the sentences (6-b and 6-c), 'enough – shift' is allowed, but in the sentence (6-a), it is awkward.

With respect to (5), adjectival 'gradience' is as given below:

'like' = 'near' > 'worth'

Similarly, with respect to (6), prepositional 'gradience' is as given below:

'worth' > 'near' > 'like'

Therefore, taking into consideration both (5) and (6), adjectival 'gradience' is like this:

'like' > 'near' > 'worth'

As a result, Anderson uses 'functors' and the ways of using numerical values to show that there is 'gradience' from adjectives to prepositions as given below:

{ P : N }	{(P : N) ;}	{(P : N) :}	{; (P : N)}	{ }
close	near	like	worth	at
due				

Anderson (1997: 79)

5.2.3. Adjectives and prepositions 3 (Newmeyer, F. J., 2000)

In this section, I pick up the assertion that the classical view of 'all-or-none' should be adopted. Newmeyer, F. J. (2000) defends the classical view. Newmeyer quotes Ross's 'squish' and Maling's assertion about the word 'near'. In section 4.1. of Newmeyer (2000), in the first half of his discussion, he says that the word 'near' has characteristics of prepositions, but, on the other hand, in the latter half of his discussion, he says that it has characteristics of adjectives. However, at the very end of section 4.1., Newmeyer gives an interesting point about the comparative degree as given below:

(1) The gas station is nearer the supermarket than the bank.

(2) The seaplane right now is more over the lake than over the mountain.

Newmeyer (2000), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004: 505)

It is generally assumed that prepositions do not take comparative degrees, but

Newmeyer points out that prepositions tend to have comparative degrees when two prepositional phrases are compared as given above (Cf. the sentence (1)). In this point, I do not agree with Newmeyer's assertion. This is because only the comparative degree in the sentence (1) is discussed, that is, the comparative degree of just one word, 'nearer', is used as an example. If the preposition 'over' had comparative degree like this: '**overer*' or '**more over*', we could have the same discussion as the word 'near' does.

In the conclusion of Newmeyer's thesis, it seems that Newmeyer does not adopt 'gradience' because he thinks that categories are not organized around central "best cases" (Cf. Newmeyer (2000), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004: 506)). Newmeyer criticizes the syntactic categories in 'generative grammar' as well as a prototype structure in 'cognitive grammar'. In contrast, Newmeyer defends the Aristotelian classical view that categories have discrete boundaries. However, Newmeyer recognizes that the classical view has some faults, for example, such that the part of sppech of the word 'near' is not decided clearly. As a result, according to Newmeyer, the inadequacy of the Aristotelian classical view should be compensated for, by way of combining principles from syntax, semantics, and pragmatics (Cf. Newmeyer (2000), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (eds.) (2004: 506)). Indeed, Newmeyer's assertion seems to be partly right in that Newmeyer defends the Aristotelian classical view, but to compensate for the inadequacy of it with several principles combined will lead us to recognize that the inadequacy of the classical view is in fact observed, namely, that the existence of 'gradience' exists among several linguistic fields.

5.3. Summary of Chapter 5

In this chapter, 'gradience' between adjectives and prepositions is discussed. In my

thesis, I positively recognize that there is 'gradience' between adjectives and prepositions, but some linguists do not. Maling is one of those who do not. In section 5.2.1., the essence of her assertion, concerning the three words, 'like', 'worth', and 'near', is mainly discussed. In Maling's thesis, her discussion is summarized as a table as given below:

	A	P	*like*	*worth*	*near*
semantic or functional					
occurs as pred. comp. to *seem*, etc.	+	−	+	+	+
degree modification by *very*	+	−	?	−	+
degree modification by *how*, *so*, *too*	+	−	+	?	+
morphological					
has synthetic comparative	+	−	−	−	+
can be base for negative *un*-prefix	+	−	(+)	−	(−)
can inflect and agree (NA for modern Eng.)	+	−			
strictly categorical					
prenominal position in NP	+	−	−	−	+
occurs 'intransitively'	+	−	−	−	+
occurs with postmodifier *enough*	+	−	−	−	+
degree modifiers without *much*	+	−	−	−	+
can be 'stranded' (NA for mod. English)	+	(−)			

Maling (1980: 272)

With respect to the symbol on the table given above, 'A' means adjectival characteristics and, in contrast, 'P' means prepositional characteristics. When words satisfy a criterion

as an adjectival characteristic, the symbol '+' is applied. Conversely, when words satisfy a criterion as a prepositional characteristic, the symbol '—' is applied. The word 'near' has most '+' symbols of the three words, and Maling regards the word 'near' as an adjective. As regards the words 'like and 'worth', many '—' symbols are applied, and Maling regards those words as prepositions.

In section 5.2.2., Anderson's assertion concerning the words 'worth', 'like' and 'near', based on the discussion of Maling, is discussed. Unlike Maling, Anderson positively accepts the notion of 'gradience' towards the words given above. Anderson uses criteria or data given by Maling to show that there is 'gradience' among words given above. When Anderson discusses this topic, he uses his original notion of 'functor' which is based on the relationships with what Anderson calls 'dependency':

{ P : N }	{ (P : N) ; }	{ (P : N) : }	{ ; (P : N) }	{ }
close	near	like	worth	at
due				

Anderson (1997: 79)

According to Anderson's idea, the word 'near' is adjective-like, and we cannot simply decide that it is completely an adjective. The same is true of the words 'like' and 'worth'. In Maling's opinion, both 'like' and 'worth' are prepositions, but in Anderson's idea, the word 'like' is located in the intermediate position between adjectives and prepositions.

In section 5.2.3., I picked up Newmeyer's assertion. Newmeyer (2000) mainly adopts Aristotelian classical view but recognizes that there are some faults. (Cf. section 5.2.3.) In my view, I adopt the notion of 'gradience', so Aristotelian classical view is an important notion but it is not adopted.

Chapter 6 'Gradience' between adjectives and verbs

6.1. Introduction

It has been generally assumed that there are many kinds of 'gradience' in the form of apparent past-participles which have the '-ed' or '-en' ending. Syntactically, especially from the perspective of 'descriptive grammar', even though we believe that a sentence is regarded as a perfect passive sentence, we sometimes find that there are some cases which have 'gradience' in 'pasivisation' from the semantic point of view. In this point, we find that there is a point of contact between syntax and semantics. Regarding the terms with '-ed' or '-en' ending, there is 'gradience' from the prototypical passive sentences to the peripheries. That is, from the semantic points of view, there is 'gradience' in that the passive sentences in question may not have the verb-like (verbal) features but rather have the adjective-like (adjectival) ones. In this dissertation, the notion of 'gradience' is presupposed and we discuss the issue from the assumption that there is 'gradience' between verbs and adjectives in apparent past-participles.

In this chapter, firstly, we show that 'gradience' of the apparent past-participles which have the '-ed' or '-en' ending has been treated in so many different approaches in the previous studies. Secondly, we pick out these apparent past-participles which have the '-ed' or '-en' ending from the entries of an English-English dictionary. Of course, they involve words which have '-ed' or '-en' endings but are not true past-participles. That is, it sometimes happens that even if words which have '-ed' or '-en' ending appear to be past-participles, they, in fact, are used as adjectives in present-day English. In this chapter, words which are used as adjectives in present-day English but whose forms appear to be past-participles are picked out from the entries of an English-English dictionary. Thirdly, we need to judge how verbal or adjectival the words of apparent

past-participles in the dictionary are, based on the criteria which are picked out from the previous studies, particularly, either those criteria in Aarts (2007) or those which are set by myself. Concerning verbs and adjectives, the number of the criteria is not the same, but we find that there are tendencies to behave like either adjectives or verbs among apparent past-participles. And lastly, we will try to find out what kinds of properties there are among the selected words, which have either the verbal or adjectival properties from the semantic points of view. Concerning how many properties or how many criteria apparent past-participles get, I follow the rule such that for every property about verbs and adjectives, one point is given to a word if the word agrees with one of the properties of verbs and adjectives.

6.2. Previous studies on the relationships between adjectives and verbs

In this section, we discuss the relationships between adjectives and verbs. The apparent past-participles are dealt with in many previous studies, and 'gradience' between adjectives and verbs is described:

(1) a. They were *arrested* by the police.

b. He was *disgusted* by the whole thing.

c. The mirror was *broken.*

Aarts (2007: 178)

In one of the previous studies, that is, Aarts (2007: 178), three types of 'gradience' between verbs and adjectives are discussed. Aarts uses the key word, 'IG' (= 'Intersective Gradience') to show 'gradience' between the parts of speech. In Aarts' view,

the word 'arrested' in the sentence (1-a) is the true past-participle of the verb 'arrest', but, on the other hand, the word 'broken' in the sentence (1-c) is an apparent past-participle, namely, it is close to an adjective, and the word 'disgusted' of the sentence (1-b) is in between.

As to the sentence (1-a), Aarts' remark is given below:

… the element *arrested* is clearly verbal: it carries a verbal ending, the sentence in which it occurs has an active counterpart, and *arrested* has a dynamic meaning which cannot be premodified by *very.*

Aarts (2007: 178)

According to Aarts' remark, the element '*arrested*' of the sentence (1-a) has only the verbal properties, and the 'arrested' of the sentence (1-a) is a prototypical past participle and thus the sentence (1-a) is also a prototypical passive sentence.

The same forms of '-ed' or '-en' are dealt with in (1), but the sentences (1-a) and (1-b) are different. Regarding the sentence (1-b), the details of Aarts' remark are as given below:

… the word *disgusted* has both verbal and adjectival properties: it is verbal because it has the '-ed' ending that is found on passive particles, it has an active counterpart, and is followed by a '*by*'-phrase. However, it could also be regarded as adjectival for several reasons: it can be said to be positioned in predicative position, it can be intensified (very disgusted), it is gradable (more disgusted / most disgusted) …

Aarts (2007: 178)

According to Aarts' remark, the element '*disgusted*' of the sentence (1-b) has verbal and adjectival properties, and so the '*disgusted*' of the sentence (1-b) cannot be said to be a prototypical past-participle. As to the verbal properties, we can go through his list as given below:

(a) whether or not there is the inflection of the verbal ending
(b) whether or not there is the active voice
(c) whether or not there is a '*by*'-phrase

On the other hand, as to the adjectival properties, we can run through his list as given below:

(a) whether or not the word can be placed in the predicative position
(b) whether or not the intensifier '*very*' can be inserted
(c) whether or not the gradable words '*more*' and '*most*' can be inserted

As to the sentence (1-c), his remark is as given below:

… *broken* can have two readings: a dynamic one (= verb, cf. the mirror was broken by hooligans) and a statal one (= adjective, cf. the mirror was already broken / the mirror seemed broken / the mirror is unbroken) …

Aarts (2007: 178)

According to his remark, the element '*broken*' of the sentence (1-c) has two aspects in the same way as the sentence (1-b) does. What is the difference between the sentence (1-b) and the sentence (1-c)? The sentence (1-b) has an acceptable '*by*'-phrase, but on the

other hand, the sentence (1-c) does not. The unacceptability of '*by*'-phrases lowers the verbal properties in the sentence (1-c), and thus the degree of having adjectival properties in the sentence (1-c) is higher than that in the sentence (1-b).

Moreover, in the previous studies such as Quirk *et al.* (1985: 167f.), Quirk *et al.* call the type of the sentence (1-a) 'a central passive', the type of the sentence (1-b) 'a semi passive', and the type of the sentence (1-c) 'a pseudo passive'. In Huddleston (1984: 322), the type of the sentence (1-c) is called 'a statal passive'. According to their studies, the type of the sentence (1-a) is the prototypical passive, the type of the sentence (1-c) is the most marginal among the three, and the sentence-type (1-b) is a medium type of the passive sentence. We find that there is 'gradience' among three sentences concerning the apparent past-participles.

Therefore, the apparent past-participle (the '-ed' or '-en' ending) in the type of the sentence (1-a) is more verbal, the apparent past-participle in the sentence type (1-c) is more adjectival, and the apparent past-participle in the type (1-b) is in between, that is, the type of the sentence (1-c) is located between the verb and the adjective.

In this section, I have shown the verbal and adjectival properties. After taking into account the criteria which show the properties of verbs and adjectives, we set up and explore the criteria more clearly in section 6.3..

6.3. The results of the research

6.3.1. The selection of words

To extract what kinds of words are either more verbal or more adjectival, I selected the words which seem to be the apparent past-participles from the entries of the English-English dictionary. In this process, however, I omitted the hyphenated

compound words and the words which are simply made with the 'un' or 'dis' prefix attached. Thus, we list the apparent past-participles in alphabetical order as given below:

A(10 words) : abashed, accustomed, advanced, aged, antiquated, armed, armored, ashamed, attuned, awaken

B(15) : bedraggled, bedridden, belated, beloved, bereaved, besought, bitten, blessed, bloated, bought, bound, brazen, broken, brought, burnt

C(14) : candied, carbonated, caught, clad, classified, closed, cockeyed, concerned, concerted, confirmed, corrugated, cramped, cried, crooked

D(15) : damned, dappled, dated, decided, departed, deranged, deserved, developed, devoted, done, dotted, drawn, dressed, dried, drunken

E(5) : elated, enamored, engaged, excited, experienced

F(6) : famished, farsighted, fixed, fought, frosted, frozen

G(4) : gifted, gnarled, graduated, granulated

H(5) : hackneyed, heated, hooked, hotshot, hurried

I(13) : impassioned, inclined, included, incorporated, indebted, indisposed, inebriated, infatuated, informed, ingrained, inhibited, inspired, involved

J(3) : jaded, jagged, jaundiced

K(3) : kept, kindred, knelt

L(6) : laid, landed, learned, legged, loaded, lopsided

M(11) : maladjusted, mannered, marked, measured, minded, misconceived, misguided, mistaken, mixed, mottled, mounted

O(1) : organized

P(8) : packed, poised, polyunsaturated, preconceived, premeditated, pressed,

privileged, protracted

Q(3) : quadruped, qualified, quilted

R(12) : ragged, rarefied, refined, related, relieved, repeated, reputed, reserved, retarded, ridged, rotten, rugged

S(6) : sacred, sophisticated, spirited, subdued, supposed, surprised

T(5) : taught, tempered, thought, tired, tried

U(1) : used

V(1) : versed

W(7) : wicked, withdrawn, wooden, worried, wounded, wretched, written

In section 6.2., I referred to the exceptional words of apparent past-participles, that is, words which seem to be past-participles but, in fact, which are used as adjectives or nouns in present-day English. We can find such words in the list given above. For example, 'hotshot', 'kindred', 'poised', 'quadruped', 'ragged', 'sacred', 'wicked', 'wooden', and 'wretched'. The word 'wooden' is mostly used as an adjective, but in *OED* 1 (268), the example of the verbal use of 'wooden' is listed.

1877 SINCLAIR *Mount 235* When the poetic vigour was enfeebled and woodenised by age.

The example above is the 'woodenised', but *OED* showed two verbal forms such as 'wooden' or 'woodenised'. Then, we can realize that there are verbal properties in 'wooden'. In my research, even though words of apparent past-participles are used as adjectives in present-day English, I picked up those words as well.

6.3.2. The judgements based on the criteria about the properties of verbs and adjectives

In order to investigate how verbal or adjectival the apparent past-participles are, I picked out the words with the apparent past-participles from the headwords of the English-English dictionary (*Random House Webster's Intermediate English Dictionary*). In this section, 6.3.2., I list the words of the apparent past-participles from (A) to (D) in alphabetical order and investigate how verbal or adjectival these words are, based on the criteria which a verb or an adjective has.

There are three criteria for the verbal properties:

whether or not the apparent past-participles are the inflected forms ('-ed' or '-en') of the supposed infinitives
whether or not the sentence which has the apparent past-participle has an active counterpart
whether or not the sentence, which can be a 'passivised' sentence, has the '*by*'-phrase

On the other hand, there are five criteria for the adjectival properties:

whether or not the form of the apparent past-participles ('-ed' or '-en') has an infinitive counterpart
whether or not the apparent past-participles can be placed in the attributive position
whether or not the apparent past-participles can be intensified by '*very*'
whether or not the apparent past-participles have gradable words such as '*more*' or '*most*'

whether or not the '*be*' verb can be changed into '*seem*' or '*look*'

The tables given below are the results which show whether the words of the apparent past-participles can satisfy the criteria given just above. As to the judgements based on the criteria, the data in the BNC corpus are exploited. If there is only one case in the BNC corpus about each of the criteria, the criterion itself is satisfied. Some examples in the BNC corpus are given below the tables, and the alphabet or the number in parentheses is the name of a file in the BNC corpus. Concerning the table given below, the following are verbal properties. 'Infl.' stands for 'inflection', and this criterion is whether or not the infinitive of the apparent past-participles have the 'very' emphasis. 'Active' represents 'active voice', and this criterion is whether or not the sentence which has the apparent past-participle has an active counterpart. 'By-phrase' means the agent of a passivised sentence, and this criterion stands for whether or not the sentence, which can be a 'passivised' sentence, has a 'by'-phrase. On the other hand, concerning the table given below, the following are adjectival properties. 'Predicative' stands for 'predicative usage', and this criterion is whether or not the form of the apparent past-participles ('-ed' or '-en') can be placed in the predicative position. 'Attributive' means 'attributive usage', and this criterion is whether or not the apparent past-participles can be placed in the attributive position. 'Very' is the intensifier, and this criterion is whether or not the apparent past-participles can be intensified by 'very'. 'More' represents the comparative degree, and this criterion is whether or not the apparent past-participles combine with gradable words such as 'more' or 'most'. Lastly, concerning the criterion, 'seem', this means whether or not the 'be' verb can be changed into 'seem' or 'look'.

BNC (A)	Infl.	Active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	Seem
abashed	OK	*	OK	OK	*	*	OK	OK
accustomed	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
advanced	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
aged	OK	OK	*	*	OK	OK	*	OK
antiquated	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
armed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
armored	*	*	*	*	OK	*	*	*
ashamed	*	*	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	OK
attuned	OK	OK	*	OK	*	*	OK	*

… , together with other *more antiquated* kinds (EFR)

… , has come to *seem* strangely *antiquated*. (A6Y)

BNC (B)	Infl.	Active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
bedraggled	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	*	*	OK
bedridden	*	*	*	OK	OK	*	*	*
belated	*	*	*	*	*	OK	*	*
beloved	*	*	*	OK	*	*	*	OK
bereaved	*	*	*	*	OK	OK	*	*
besought	OK	OK	*	OK	*	*	*	*
bitten	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*
blessed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*

bloated	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	*	OK
bought	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	*	*
bound	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
brazen	*	*	*	OK	OK	*	OK	*
broken	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
brought	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	OK	OK
burnt	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*	OK

<bedridden>

… , a robot that can transport *bedridden patients.* (CBW)

Robert, known as Mr. Mack, suffered a stroke and *is bedridden.* (CH1)

BNC (C)	Infl.	Active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
candied	*	*	*	*	OK	*	*	*
carbonated	OK	OK	*	*	OK	*	*	*
caught	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	OK	OK
clad	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*	*
classified	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	*	OK	*
closed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK
cockeyed	*	*	*	*	OK	*	*	*
concerned	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
concerted	OK	OK	*	*	OK	OK	*	*
confirmed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
corrugated	OK	*	*	*	OK	*	OK	*

cramped	OK	*	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK
cried	OK	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
crooked	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK

<caught>

Many children *are caught* in between. (A6V)

… , it is *more caught* than taught. (HS7)

Additional voluntary contributions *seem caught* too, … (HC2)

<crooked>

If she *crooked* her precious little finger you'd be running. (A0L)

Either a right heavy, a real bully, or someone *very crooked.* (A8Y)

… and so looking *more crooked*; … (1GUA)

The knot *looked crooked* in the mirror and he started again, (1CA3)

BNC (D)	Infl.	Active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
damned	OK	?	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
dappled	OK	*	*	OK	OK	*	*	*
dated	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK
decided	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK
departed	OK	OK	?	*	OK	*	*	OK
deranged	OK	*	*	OK	*	*	OK	*
deserved	OK	OK	*	*	OK	*	*	*
developed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
devoted	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK

done	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*	OK
dotted	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	*	*	*
drawn	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
dressed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
dried	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
drunken	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	*

6.3.3. The degrees of the properties of verbs and adjectives

In the previous section 6.3.2., we investigated how verbal or adjectival the apparent past-participles are and found out that many of the apparent past-participles satisfy the criteria given in previous section 6.3.2. In this section, 6.3.3., the properties both of the adjectives and the verbs are quantitatively examined. For example, the word 'abashed' has three adjectival properties, i.e. three points and two verbal properties, i.e. two points. This is because, in 'abashed', concerning verbal properties, two criteria such as 'Infl.' and 'by-phrase' are satisfied, but one criterion 'Active' is not satisfied; on the other hand, concerning adjectival properties, three criteria such as 'Predicative', 'very', and 'seem' are satisfied, but two criteria such as 'Attributive' and 'very' are not satisfied.

BNC (A)	verbal degree	adjectival degree
abashed	2	3
accustomed	2	4
advanced	3	5
aged	2	3

antiquated	2	4
armed	3	5
armored	0	1
ashamed	1	4
attuned	2	2

BNC (B)	verbal degree	adjectival degree
bedraggled	2	3
bedridden	0	2
belated	0	2
beloved	0	2
bereaved	0	2
besought	2	1
bitten	3	2
blessed	3	4
bloated	4	4
bought	3	2
bound	3	5
brazen	0	3
broken	3	5
brought	3	3
burnt	3	2

BNC (C)	verbal degree	adjectival degree
candied	0	1
carbonated	2	1
caught	3	3
clad	3	1
classified	3	2
closed	3	4
cockeyed	0	1
concerned	2	5
concerted	2	2
confirmed	3	5
corrugated	1	1
cramped	1	4
cried	1	0
crooked	2	5

BNC (D)	verbal degree	adjectival degree
damned	3	4
dappled	1	2
dated	3	4
decided	3	4
departed	2	2
deranged	1	2
deserved	1	1

developed	3	5
devoted	2	5
done	3	2
dotted	2	2
drawn	3	5
dressed	3	4
dried	3	4
drunken	2	4

The tables given above represent the verbal or adjectival degrees in BNC corpus concerning the apparent past-participles, but they might not be sufficient. In order to compensate for the insufficient aspects, I consulted two native speakers of English (one is from Canada, and the other is from the U.S.), and I compared the result from the BNC corpus with the results from the two informants. The former (Canadian) is shown as Subject (a), the latter (American) is shown as Subject (b)[9].

Subject (a) (A)	**Infl.**	**Active**	**by-phrase**	**predicative**	**attributive**	**very**	**more**	**Seem**
abashed	OK	*	OK	OK	*	*	OK	OK
accustomed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
advanced	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
aged	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK

[9] In the tables, the symbol 'OK' means that the criterion is satisfied by the apparent past-participle, and the symbol '*' means that the criterion is not satisfied by the apparent past-participle.Concerning the symbol, '?', it means that Subject (a) or Subject (b) does not realize that the criterion is not satisfied by the apparent past-participle.

antiquated	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
armed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
armored	*	*	*	*	OK	*	*	*
ashamed	*	*	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	OK
attuned	OK	OK	*	OK	*	*	OK	*

Subject (a) (B)	Infl.	Active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
bedraggled	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK
bedridden	*	*	*	OK	OK	*	*	OK
belated	*	*	*	*	OK	OK	*	*
beloved	*	*	*	OK	OK	*	*	OK
bereaved	*	*	*	*	OK	OK	*	*
besought	OK	OK	*	*	*	*	*	*
bitten	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*
blessed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
bloated	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	*	OK
bought	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	*	*	*
bound	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	OK
brazen	*	*	*	OK	OK	*	OK	*
broken	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
brought	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*	OK
burnt	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*	OK

Subject (a) (C)	Infl.	Active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
candied	*	*	*	*	OK	*	*	*
carbonated	OK	OK	*	*	OK	*	*	*
caught	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	OK	OK
clad	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*	*
classified	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	*	OK	*
closed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK
cockeyed	*	*	*	*	OK	*	*	*
concerned	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
concerted	OK	OK	*	*	OK	OK	*	*
confirmed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
corrugated	OK	*	*	*	OK	*	OK	*
cramped	OK	*	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK
cried	OK	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
crooked	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK

Subject(a) (D)	Infl.	Active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
damned	OK	?	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
dappled	OK	*	*	OK	OK	*	*	*
dated	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK
decided	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK

departed	OK	OK	*	*	OK	*	OK	?
deranged	OK	*	*	OK	*	*	OK	*
deserved	OK	OK	*	*	OK	*	*	*
developed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
devoted	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
done	OK	*	OK	OK	*	*	OK	OK
dotted	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	*	*	*
drawn	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK
dressed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
dried	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
drunken	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	*

Subject (b) (A)	**Infl.**	**Active**	**by-phrase**	**predicative**	**attributive**	**very**	**more**	**Seem**
abashed	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
accustomed	OK	?	*	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
advanced	OK	OK	?	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
aged	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
antiquated	OK	*	*	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
armed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	?	OK	OK
armored	*	*	*	*	OK	*	*	*
ashamed	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
attuned	OK	OK	*	OK	*	*	OK	*

Subject (b) (B)	Infl.	Active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
bedraggled	OK	*	*	OK	OK	*	*	OK
bedridden	*	*	*	OK	OK	*	*	*
belated	*	*	*	*	OK	OK	*	*
beloved	*	*	OK	OK	OK	*	*	OK
bereaved	*	*	*	*	OK	*	*	OK
besought	*	*	*	OK	*	*	*	*
bitten	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*
blessed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
bloated	OK	*	*	OK	OK	OK	*	OK
bought	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	*	*
bound	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
brazen	*	*	*	OK	OK	*	OK	*
broken	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
brought	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	OK	OK
burnt	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	OK

Subject (b) (C)	Infl.	Active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
candied	*	*	*	*	OK	*	*	*
carbonated	OK	?	?	*	OK	*	*	*
caught	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	OK	OK
clad	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*	*

classified	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	*	OK	*
closed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK
cockeyed	*	*	*	*	OK	*	*	*
concerned	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
concerted	OK	*	*	?	OK	OK	*	*
confirmed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
corrugated	OK	*	*	*	OK	*	OK	*
cramped	OK	*	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK
cried	OK	*	OK	*	*	*	*	*
crooked	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK

Subject(b) (D)	Infl.	Active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
damned	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
dappled	OK	*	*	OK	OK	*	*	*
dated	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
decided	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK
departed	OK	OK	*	*	OK	*	*	OK
deranged	OK	*	OK	OK	*	*	OK	*
deserved	OK	OK	*	*	OK	*	*	*
developed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
devoted	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
done	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*	OK
dotted	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	*	*	*

drawn	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
dressed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
dried	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
drunken	OK	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	*

6.4. Analysis

6.4.1. Analysis of verbs and adjectives

Now let us pick out the words which have the highest properties (5 points) for the adjectival criteria. In section 6.3., it is shown how verbal or adjectival the apparent past-participles are in tables.

These words are as given below:

'advanced, antiquated, armed, bound, broken, concerned, confirmed, crooked, developed, devoted, drawn'

These words given above have the highest properties (5 points) for the adjectival criteria, and at the same time, they also all have the highest properties (3 points) for the verbal criteria.

On the other hand, now let us pick out the words which have the lowest property (0 point) for the verbal criteria. Interestingly, most of the words (however, 'brazen' is an exception, and 'brazen' has three adjectival properties and zero verbal property) have lower properties (particularly under 2 points) for the adjectival criteria. They are as given below:

‘armored, awaken, bedridden, belated, beloved, bereaved, brazen, candied, cockeyed’

As we can see, the words which have the highest properties (5 points) for the adjectival criteria also have the highest properties (3 points) for the verbal criteria. Interestingly, in contrast, the words which have the lowest properties (0 point) for the verbal criteria also have lower properties (mainly under 2 points) for the adjectival criteria.

Table: The results of adjectival and verbal degree concerning Subject (a)

Subject (a) (A)	verbal degree	adjectival degree
abashed	2	3
accustomed	3	4
advanced	3	5
aged	2	5
antiquated	2	5
armed	3	5
armored	0	1
ashamed	1	4
attuned	2	2

Subject (a) (B)	verbal degree	adjectival degree
bedraggled	2	3
bedridden	0	2
belated	0	2
beloved	0	3

bereaved	0	2
besought	2	1
bitten	3	2
blessed	3	4
bloated	2	4
bought	3	1
bound	3	3
brazen	0	3
broken	3	5
brought	3	2
burnt	3	2

Subject (a)(C)	verbal degree	adjectival degree
candied	0	1
carbonated	2	1
caught	3	3
clad	3	1
classified	3	2
closed	3	4
cockeyed	0	1
concerned	2	5
concerted	2	2
confirmed	3	5
corrugated	1	2

cramped	1	4
cried	1	0
crooked	2	5

Subject (a)(D)	verbal degree	adjectival degree
damned	2	4
dappled	1	2
dated	3	4
decided	3	4
departed	2	2
deranged	1	2
deserved	2	1
developed	3	5
devoted	3	5
done	2	3
dotted	2	2
drawn	3	4
dressed	3	4
dried	3	4
drunken	2	4

Table: The results of adjectival and verbal degree concerning Subject (b)

Subject (b) (A)	verbal degree	adjectival degree
abashed	2	4

accustomed	1	4
advanced	2	5
aged	3	5
antiquated	1	4
armed	3	4
armored	0	1
ashamed	1	5
attuned	2	2

Subject (b) (B)	verbal degree	adjectival degree
bedraggled	1	3
bedridden	0	2
belated	0	2
beloved	1	3
bereaved	0	2
besought	0	1
bitten	2	2
blessed	3	4
bloated	1	4
bought	3	2
bound	3	5
brazen	0	3
broken	2	5
brought	3	3

burnt	3	3

Subject (b)(C)	verbal degree	adjectival degree
candied	0	1
carbonated	1	1
caught	3	3
clad	3	1
classified	3	2
closed	3	4
cockeyed	0	1
concerned	2	5
concerted	1	2
confirmed	3	4
corrugated	1	2
cramped	1	4
cried	2	0
crooked	2	5

Subject (b)(D)	verbal degree	adjectival degree
damned	3	4
dappled	1	2
dated	3	5
decided	3	4
departed	2	2

deranged	2	2
deserved	2	1
developed	3	5
devoted	2	5
done	3	2
dotted	2	2
drawn	3	5
dressed	3	4
dried	3	4
drunken	1	4

The results both of adjectival and verbal degree by two subjects as English native speakers are given above. Concerning the tables given above, some apparent past-participles got the highest properties of adjectival degree (5 points), and they are given below:

From the results of Subject (a):

'advanced, aged, antiquated, armed, broken, concerned, confirmed, crooked, developed, devoted'

From the results of Subject (b):

'advanced, aged, ashamed, bound, broken, concerned, crooked, dated, developed, devoted, drawn'

These apparent past-participles are involved in the data of the BNC corpus. Regarding

these words, on the results of Subject (a) and Subject (b), they get more than two points on verbal characteristics, and we can conclude that concerning the apparent past-participles, the higher the adjectival properties are, the higher the verbal properties are as well. On the other hand, concerning the apparent past-participles which have low properties in verbs (zero or one point), how are the results both of Subject (a) and Subject (b)?

From the results of Subject (a):

'armored, bedridden, belated, beloved, bereaved, brazen, candied, cockeyed'

From the results of Subject (b):

'armored, bedridden, belated, bereaved, brazen, candied, cockeyed'

Concerning the results both of Subject (a) and Subject (b), they are almost the same. In this situation, I would like to pick out the apparent past-participles which were chosen in BNC corpus. They are as given below:

'armored, bedridden, belated, bereaved, brazen, candied, cockeyed'

Except for the apparent past-participles such as 'belated' and 'brazen' on the result of Subject (a) and 'brazen' on the result of Subject (b), the apparent past-participles given above do not get less than two points for the adjectival properties. In this situation, the lower the verbal properties are, the lower the adjectival properties are.

6.4.2. Verbs, adjectives, and 'transitivity'

In Chapter 3, we discussed the concept of 'transitivity'. Particularly, in section 3.2.3., the idea of 'transitivity' in Hopper and Thompson (1980) is introduced. Hopper and Thompson presented several criteria which affect the idea of 'transitivity' of verbs.

Focusing on the criteria of 'transitivity' in Hopper and Thompson (1980), we now discuss the infinitive of the past-participles (the '-ed' or '-en' forms), which have the highest degrees (3 points) in verbal characteristics. Here are the past-participles which we should discuss concerning infinitives:[10]

'advanced, armed, bound, broken, confirmed, developed, drawn'

The infinitives of the past-participles given above are given below:

'advance, arm, bind, break, confirm, develop, draw'

The table given below shows how much the verbs given above are related to the criteria of 'transitivity' in Hopper and Thompson (1980)[11].

[10] It is difficult to discuss the degree of 'transitivity' concerning the past participle itself, and by way of using verbs of the active voice, the criteria of the 'transitivity' in Hopper and Thompson (1980) is discussed.

[11] 'Participants' stand for the number of the arguments, and when the number of the arguments is more than two, the symbol 'OK' is given in the table. 'Kinesis' means whether the verb is 'action' or 'non-action', and when the verb is 'action', the symbol 'OK' is given in the table. 'Aspect' means the aspect of a verb, and when the aspect of a verb is 'telic', the symbol 'OK' is given in the table. 'Punctuality' means the durative aspect of a verb, and when the verb is 'punctual', the symbol 'OK' is given in the table. 'Volitionality' shows whether or not the 'will' is involved in a verb, and when the verb is 'volitional', the symbol 'OK' is given in the table. 'Affirmation' means the criterion on whether or not a verb has an affirmative meaning, and when a verb is 'affirmative', the symbol of 'OK' is given in the table. 'Affectedness' means the affectedness of the action towards the object of a verb, and when a verb has an influence on its object, the symbol 'OK' is given in the table.

	advance	arm	bind	break	confirm	develop	draw
Participants	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
Kinesis	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
Aspect	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
Punctuality	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
Volitionality	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
Affirmation	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
Affectedness	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK

Table: The criteria of 'transitivity' in Hopper and Thompson (1980)

As I mentioned in Chapter 3, several factors are related to the idea of 'transitivity'. 'Participants', 'volitionality', and 'affectedness' are the principal factors. In the table given above, 'OK' shows that the verb satisfies each of the criteria of 'transitivity' and '＊' does not. In fact, there is no '＊' in the above table.

As are given above, the accumulated points of the criteria on 'transitivity' of verbs which have both the verbal and adjectival properties are all high. Incidentally, Dixon (2005) classifies basic verbs which he chose into several categorized types. According to the types in Dixon (2005), the word 'break' is classified into the 'affect-type', and the word 'draw' is classified into the 'motion, throw or affect-type'. Concerning the word 'break' or 'draw', the degree of 'transitivity' is high from the viewpoint of what Bolinger calls 'affectedness' or the influence of the verbs[12].

6.5. Summary of Chapter 6

[12] Concerning the idea of 'affectedness', in this situation, 'affectedness' means that the verb concernd has an influence on its object.

There are properties that form 'gradience' from verbal to adjectival properties in past-participles ('-ed' or '-en' forms). Past-participles which have higher characteristics of adjectives (mainly five points which are shown in the table in section 6.3.3.) also have many characteristics of verbs. Conversely, past-participles which have few characteristics of verbs (mainly zero point which is shown in the table in section 6.3.3.) also have few characteristics of adjectives (mainly one point or two points which are shown in the table in section 6.3.3.). In order to compensate for the insufficient aspects of the data in the BNC corpus, I added the data from native speakers and compared the BNC data with them. Concerning the results of the apparent past-participles based on the data of native speakers, we can conclude that the higher the adjectival properties are, the higher the verbal properties are as well.

Moreover, from the viewpoint of 'transitivity', the verbs which have more properties of both adjectives and verbs are verbs of high 'transitivity'. In general, adjectives are supposed to be low in 'transitivity', but the verbs which have both adjectival and verbal properties have high 'transitivity'. That is, the properties of verbs are superior to or more influential than the properties of adjectives in 'transitivity'.

Discussions given above are based on verbs from (A) to (D) in the alphabetical order, but they are true in verbs from (E) to (W). See the Appendices to Chapter 6.

Chapter 7 'Gradience' from adverbs through prepositions to adjectives

7.1. Introduction

The chapters 4 through 6 focused on gradience in English grammar. The main idea is to focus on the continuities from adverbs through prepositions to adjectives. The continuities are based on gradience and the idea of gradience in this dissertation shows the gradience within or between parts of speech. Particularly, in chapter 4, I discussed what Aarts (2007) calls 'SG' (= Subsective Gradience) on prepositions. In order to show gradience between prepositions, I surveyed idiomatic expressions composed of 'intransitive verb + preposition'. It is difficult to assess gradience only by looking at prepositions themselves, but the difference between prepositions is to be found when prepositions are used as part of idiomatic expressions

In the preceding chapters of this dissertation, the gradeience between prepositions is recognized and this observation is based on a search involving verbs. In this sense, gradience in prepositions themselves is not discussed. Nor does this mean that verbs by themselves play the role of deciding gradience in prepositions. We analyzed the idiomatic expressions like 'intransitive verb + preposition', and found that the connections between verbs and prepositions could not be ignored.

How should we deal with both the connections between verbs and prepositions in idiomatic expressions and gradience in prepositions? In order to solve this problem, we use the terms of 'passivisation' and 'transitivity'. This is because, as was shown in chapter 4, an idiomatic expression like 'intransitive verb + preposition' has its own degree of passivizability depending on the kinds of prepositions used in the idioms. Thus, whether or not an idiomatic expression can be passivized is an important factor concerning gradience among prepositions. This is the very point demonstrated in this

dissertation by way of using the BNC corpus extensively.

7.2. 'idiomaticity' and 'passivisation'

Another important point discussed in chapter 4 is the relationship between 'idiomaticity' and 'passivisation'. Concerning the idea of 'idiomaticity', it can be interpreted in several ways. As is shown as previous studies in sections 4.3.1. and 4.3.2. in chapter 4, regarding the idea of 'idiomaticity', Akimoto (1985) takes up the 'VN' type, that is, the combination of 'verb + noun' such as 'take place', 'break step' and so on, and the 'VNP' type, that is, the combination of 'verb + noun + preposition' such as 'take part in', 'take advantage of' and so forth as idioms. Akimoto studies how strong or weak the connections of 'VN' type and the 'VNP' type are. From the result of the table in Akimoto (1985: 146), which is a list of examples of 'transformation', Akimoto researched into the idioms and studied whether a sentence with idioms of 'VN' type or 'VNP' type can be passivized. As a result, Akimoto shows that the more idiomatic an idiom is, the less passivizable the sentence which includes the idiom is. Needless to say, 'passivisation' is only one of the types of transformation which Akimoto used (Cf. Akimoto (1985: 146)).

Couper-Kuhlen (1979) also uses the term of 'idiomaticity', and regards 'idioms' as the connection of 'verb + preposition + NP' such as 'cry for the moon'. The definition of 'idiomaticity' in Couper-Kuhlen is how strong or weak the connection of 'verb + preposition + NP' is. As a result, Couper-Kuhlen draws out the fact that the more idiomatic the idioms are, that is, the higher 'idiomaticity' the idioms have, the less passivisable they are.

Regarding the definition of 'idiomaticity' and the data which are observed, Akimoto and Couper-Kuhlen provide a similar result. That is to say, from the viewpoint

of 'idiomaticity', the higher the cohesiveness of the idiom is, the more passivizable the idiom is.

However, Watanabe (2011) shows a different result concerning 'passivisation'. Watanabe (2011) deals with idioms of the form 'intransitive verb + preposition' such as 'look at', 'look for' and so on. Akimoto (1985) deals with those idioms as 'verb + noun' and 'verb + noun + preposition' and Couper-Kuhlen (1979) deals with such idiom as 'verb + preposition + noun'. This is the difference among the three.

Concerning 'idiomaticity', Watanabe (2011) regards the degree of cohesiveness as the degree of 'idiomaticity'. Akimoto and Couper-Kuhlen also regard 'idiomaticity' as the degree of cohesiveness in the types of idioms which they deal with. Watanabe, Akimoto, and Couper-Kuhlen have a point in common in that they regard the degree of 'idiomaticity' as the degree of cohesiveness. Of course, the kinds of idioms they deal with are different.

Concerning 'passivisation' and 'idiomaticity', Akimoto and Couper-Kuhlen have the point in common in that they find that the higher 'idiomaticity' is, the less passivizable the sentence which includes the idioms is. On the other hand, Watanabe (2011) gives a different result regarding 'passivisation' and 'idiomaticity'. That is, the higher its 'idiomaticity' is, the more passivizable the sentence composed of the idiom 'intransitive verb + preposition' is. Watanabe (2011) finds that concerning 'idiomaticity' in 'intransitive verb + preposition', 'passivisation' depends on the kinds of prepositions. Watanabe (2011) classifies the prepositions into three groups (Cf. chapter 4). Three groups are 'Group A' (prototypical preposition), 'Group B' (highly adverbial preposition), and 'Group C' (prepositions between 'Group A' and 'Group B'). Among them is the difference in 'passivisation'. Sentences which involve 'Group A' prepositions in the construction 'intransitive verb + preposition' are more passivizable than those which

involve 'Group B' prepositions in the construction 'intransitive verb + preposition'. The difference among prepositions affects the possibility of 'passivisation' in the construction 'intransitive verb + preposition'.

Regarding the relationship in 'idiomaticity' and 'passivisation', the results of the data among Watanabe and Couper-Kuhlen and Akimoto are not the same. This is because the kinds of idioms which are dealt with are different: Watanabe (2011) dealt with 'intransitive verb + preposition', but the other two with other types of idioms.

7.3. 'gradience' from adjectives to verbs

Chapter 6 discusses 'gradience' from adjectives to verbs. The apparent past-participles, the '-ed' or '-en' forms, have both verbal and adjectival characteristics. I chose three verbal characteristics and five adjectival characteristics. By way of using the English-English dictionary, the apparent past-participles (the words which take '-ed' or '-en' forms) look like past-participles of the verbs, but they function as adjectives. By way of using both verbal and adjectival characteristics as the criteria, the apparent past-participles in the English-English dictionary are judged, according to how verbal or adjectival the apparent past-participles are.

As a result, we find three points. The apparent past-participles which have highly adjectival characteristics have highly verbal characteristics. The apparent past-participles which have a low degree of verbal characteristics have a low degree of adjectival characteristics. The apparent past-participles which have highly adjectival and verbal characteristics have a high degree of 'transitivity' of verbs.

7.4. 'gradience' in English grammar

In chapter 4, we discussed whether or not the sentences which involve the idiomatic expressions composed of 'intransitive verb + preposition' are an important factor in 'passivisation' and 'idiomaticity'. Even in the same idiomatic expressions composed of 'intransitive verb + preposition', there is a difference in 'passivisation'. This is due to the kind of the preposition in idioms of the form 'intransitive verb + preposition'. The idioms which include adverbial prepositions (= 'Group B' type) are less likely to be passivized than the idioms which include prototypical prepositions (= 'Group A' type). The difference of the types in prepositions affects the grammaticality of the idioms (= 'intransitive verb + preposition') when they are passivized. Here, there is gradience in prepositions.

In this dissertation, I use the term 'gradience' in many places. Why does the notion of gradience originally emerge? The idea of gradience in English grammar means that even in the same part of speech there inevitably occur both the prototypical words and the peripheral ones. Recall chapter 4: the prototypical words are the prepositions of 'Group A' type, the peripheral words are the prepositions of 'Group B' type, and prepositions other than 'Group A' and 'Group B' are the prepositions of 'Group C' type. This fact does mean that the idea of 'dichotomy' is insufficient. When we interpret words, the recognition of parts of speech does not always give us a clue to understand the words. Not only the recognition of parts of speech but also the semantic meanings are necessary to comprehend words. The most important are the meanings of the words and not the parts of speech.

In chapter 5, I took up gradience between prepositions and adjectives. This is what Aarts (2007) calls 'IG' (= Intersective Gradience). The words which are dealt with are, particularly, 'like', 'worth', and 'near'. In Maling's (1987) thesis, several semantic or

functional criteria are given that decide whether the words given above are adjectival or prepositional. The results Maling gives are shown in section 5.3 of this thesis. The word 'near' satisfies almost all the criteria and positively shows the adjectival characteristics (Cf. section 5.3.). On the other hand, 'worth' positively shows the prepositional characteristics. The word 'like' is between 'near' and 'worth', and 'like' has a tendency to be a preposition.

Anderson (1997: 79) shows 'gradience' between adjectives and prepositions:

{P : N}	{(P : N) ;}	{(P : N) :}	{; (P : N)}	{ }
close	near	like	worth	at
due				

Anderson(1997: 79)

Through the results of Anderson's approach, the same results that Maling showed are given. That is, 'near' is more adjectival, 'worth' is more prepositional, and 'like' is in between. The reason why there occurs gradience among 'like', 'worth', and 'near' is that originally, each word begins with one part of speech, and then the meaning spreads and they take formal properties of other parts of speech. For example, concerning 'worth', 'worth' is originally used as an adjective. When 'worth' is used as a preposition, it has the characteristic of having a comparative degree. Of course, concerning the characteristics of both adjectives and prepositions, 'worth' is more prepositional, a fact shown by Maling and Anderson.

It is difficult to define such words 'like', 'worth', and 'near' as having fixed parts of speech, based on the semantic or functional criteria. Even when they are used as one part of speech, meanings or functions of another part of speech are added.

In chapter 6, I took up gradience from adjectives to verbs. The apparent

past-participles are the materials of this chapter. Originally, the basic form is the verbal bare infinitive and the '-ed' or '-en' form is the conjugated form of the bare infinitive.

'the bare infinitive of verbs' → "-ed' or '-en' forms of past-participles' → 'adjectives'

Now let us take an example, that is, the apparent past-participle 'involved'. Concerning the word 'involved', 'involved' takes '-ed' form of past-participles, and later it assumes the function of 'adjectives'. The reason why I propose there is gradience in adjectives and verbs in chapter 6 is based on the transition or progress from the bare infinitive of verbs through '-ed' or '-en' forms of past-participles to 'adjective'. Thus, the apparent past-participles are located in between and the apparent past-participles have characteristics of both verbs and adjectives.

7.5. Summary of chapter 7

Gradience between prepositions in chapter 4, gradience from prepositions to adjectives in chapter 5, and gradience from adjectives to verbs in chapter 6 are different cases from one another in that gradience between prepositions is cases of what Aarts (2007) calls 'SG' (= Subsective Gradience) and the latter two are cases of what Aarts (2007) calls 'IG' (= Intersective Gradience). The former (= gradience between prepositions) is recognized from the study in this dissertation such that whether or not the sentence which is composed of such idiom as 'intransitive verb + preposition' can be passivized. That is, based on 'passivisability', gradience between prepositions is decided. It is difficult to decide gradience between prepositions by prepositions alone but it becomes possible when one considers the degree of cohesiveness of the idioms (=

'idiomaticity') and their passivisability.

On the other hand, concerning the latter two, a word originally is of one part of speech like an adjective or verb, and then with the extension of the function and the meanings, the word gains the grammatical status of another part of speech. Here, the idea of parts of speech is subject to the function and meanings. Categorization into parts of speech would come after our recognition of the function and meanings of the word. Thus, the word has the ambiguous characteristic with respect to parts of speech. This is why gradience occurs in the latter two. This is intended to mean that when a certain word admits an object that follows it, it acts as an one-place predicate, which is the very nature of a 'preposition' (see chapter 5) and that when a certain word assumes a predicative or an attributive function, it acts as an predicative or a modifier, which is the very function an 'adjective' assumes (see chapter 6).

Chapter 8 Conclusion

8.1. 'Gradience' from adverbs through prepositions to adjectives (The reconsiderations of Chapter 4 to Chapter 6)

In Chapter 4 of this thesis, I discussed 'gradience' between prepositions. I classified prepositions into two main categories. One is prototypical prepositions such as 'at', 'on' and so on. The other is adverbial prepositions such as 'above', 'beyond' and so on. At the outset, before starting to discuss 'gradience' between prepositions, three ideas were introduced. One is 'passivisation', another is 'idiomaticity', and the last is 'transitivity'. Considering 'gradience' between prepositions, I collected through an idiom dictionary the idiomatic phrases which are composed of 'intransitive verb + preposition'. I paid attention to the connectivity between intransitive verbs and its prepositions. The stronger the connectivity is, the more idiomatic the phrase is. Then, I defined the idea of 'idiomaticity' as how strong the connectivity of the phrase is.

The connectivity of the idiomatic phrase is thought to be related to the degree of 'passivisation'. If the connectivity is stronger, the idiomatic phrase appears to be a one-word transitive verb. In general, transitive verbs can be passivised, so the idiomatic phrase (one-word transitive verb) can also be passivised. This is the relationship between 'idiomaticity' and 'passivisation'. That is, the higher 'idiomaticity' is, the more likely 'passivisation' is.

The sentences of idiomatic phrases with prototypical prepositions are likely to be passivised. On the other hand, the sentences of idiomatic phrases with adverbial prepositions are less likely to be passivised. This fact shows that the degree of the connectivity between intransitive verbs and their prepositions affects the degree of 'passivisation'. That is, the difference of the prepositional types affects the degree of

'passivisation'.

Through prepositional analysis of Chapter 4, I set up 'gradience' between prepositions as given below:

Group A (prototypical, or central prepositions): on, at, for, over, to, with
Group B (adverbial prepositions): off, around, without, above, beyond, onto, across
Group C (pseudo prepositions): prepositions in between Group A and Group B

Prepositions in Group A are the ones which have prototypical or central characteristics. Prepositions in Group B are the ones which have adverbial features. The prepositions in Group C are located in between Group A and Group B.

In Chapter 5, I studied 'gradience' between prepositions and adjectives. In the previous studies, regarding 'gradience' between prepositions and adjectives, three words such as 'like', 'near', and 'worth' are discussed.

In 1970s, Ross proposed the idea of 'squish'. Using the idea of 'squish', Ross gave 'gradience' between prepositions and adjectives as given below:

proud > opposite > **near** > like > in

Ross (1972: 318-319), quoted in Aarts (2008:156)

In Ross's analysis, the word 'near' is located in the intermediate position between prepositions and adjectives. The word 'like' has more prepositional characteristic. Similarly, Maling (1983) also studied the three words, 'like', 'worth', and 'near'. Maling uses criteria based on three standpoints. First is a semantic or functional viewpoint. Second is a morphological viewpoint. Third is a categorical viewpoint. Maling

summarizes her discussion as a table (which is shown in section 5.3.). In her analysis, the word 'near' is the most adjectival of the three. On the other hand, the word 'worth' is the most prepositional. The word 'like' is located in between. Then, considering 'gradience', we can get 'gradience' as given below:

'near' (more adjectival) > 'like' > 'worth' (more prepositional)

Moreover, Anderson (1979) also takes up the three words and uses several 'functors' to show 'gradience' as given below:

{P : N}	{(P ; N) ; }	{(P : N) : }	{; (P : N)}	{ }
close / due	near	like	worth	at

Anderson (1979: 79)

In Anderson's analysis, the word 'near' is more adjectival. On the other hand, the word 'worth' is more prepositional. The word 'like' is located in between. Anderson's result is similar to that of Maling.

Finally, I took up Newmeyer's assertion (Cf. Newmeyer (2000)). Newmeyer himself does not agree with the notion of 'gradience'. Newmeyer discusses the word 'near', and recognizes that the word 'near' has two aspects, that is, adjectival and prepositional aspects. Newmeyer himself supports the Aristotelian classical view, but also recognizes that it is not enough. Newmeyer's idea is to combine principles from syntax, semantics, and pragmatics.

Apart from the idea of Newmeyer, considering the three words, 'like', 'near', and 'worth', 'gradience' can be observed like this:

near (more adjectival) > like > worth (more prepositional)

Then, we can find 'gradience' between prepositions and adjectives.

In Chapter 6, I picked up 'gradience' between verbs and adjectives. In Chapter 4, gradience I discussed is what Aarts (2007) calls 'SG' (which stands for 'Subsective Gradience'), but, on the other hand, 'gradience' I discussed both in Chapter 5 and in Chapter 6 is what Aarts (2007) calls 'IG' (which stands for 'Intersective Gradience'). Considering 'gradience' between verbs and adjectives, I have discussed apparent past-participles. These are the ones which apparently look like the past-participles of verbs but are likely to have the properties of adjectives. Through an English-English dictionary, I picked up and collected the apparent past-participles. Then, I set up several properties either adjectival or verbal. The criteria for the verbal properties are the three given below:

Whether or not the infinitive of the apparent past-participles have an inflection
Whether or not the sentence which has the apparent past-participles has an active counterpart
Whether or not the sentence, which can be a 'passivised' sentence, has a 'by'-phrase

On the other hand, the criteria for the adjectival properties are five as given below:

Whether or not the apparent past-participles have an infinitive counterpart
Whether or not the apparent past-participles can be placed in the attributive position
Whether or not the apparent past-participles can be intensified by 'very'

Whether or not the apparent past-participles have the gradable words such as 'more' or 'most'

Whether or not the 'be' verb can be changed into 'seem' or 'look'

Considering both adjectival and verbal properties, I examined the apparent past-participles through the examples of BNC-corpus. I gave the points assigned by the criteria to each apparent past-participle.

As a result, apparent past-participles which have the high characteristics of adjectives also have many characteristics of verbs. In contrast, past-participles which have few characteristics of verbs have also few characteristics of adjectives. It may seem different past-participles have different characteristics both of adjectives and verbs, but, in any event, we can recognize 'gradience' between verbs and adjectives.

8.2. Summary and Concluding remarks

'Gradience' in English grammar has been discussed in my dissertation. In the previous section, 'gradience' from adverbs through prepositions to adjectives, based on verbs, is mentioned. The term 'gradience' which is used in my research is similar to the idea of 'continuity' among parts of speech. In Aarts (2007), he presents two types of 'gradience'. One is 'SG', that is, 'Subsective Gradience'. The other is 'IG', that is, 'Intersective Gradience'. The former means 'gradience' within a part of speech. On the other hand, the latter means 'gradience' between or among parts of speech. Again, I will show the idea Aarts proposes about 'gradience'.

SG is intra-categorial in nature, and allows for prototypes, that is, for members of

a class to display the properties of that class to varying degrees. IG is an inter-categorial phenomenon which is characterized by two form classes converging on each other.

Aarts '2007: 241-242)

Chapter 1 is the introduction of my dissertation. Apart from the name of the term, 'gradience', the idea similar to 'gradience' has been already discussed in ancient Greece. Particularly, Aristotle adopted the idea of 'dichotomy', which is a position not recognizing the idea of 'gradience'. Based on the viewpoint of 'dichotomy', the 'all-or-none' principle is adopted and the 'gradience' phenomenon seems to be rejected. In Chapter 5 of this thesis, I picked up the idea of Newmeyer. He has a skeptical stance towards 'gradience'. He mainly supports 'dichotomy' or the 'all-or-none' principle and only if 'dichotomy' is not sufficient for analyzing data, he adopts the other position such as the cognitive linguistic approach. I do not regard the idea of 'transitivity' as the main field of cognitive linguistics. Of course, we can deal with the idea of 'transitivity' from the viewpoint of cognitive linguistics, but, in the first place, the idea of 'transitivity' itself has a wide meaning or interpretation. That is, for example, the idea of 'affectedness' is used from a semantic point of view. Moreover, the notion of 'transitivity' is used from the viewpoint of functional grammar. Furthermore, it is difficult to define the idea of 'transitivity' quantitatively.

Chapter 2 deals with several fields of linguistics, which discuss 'gradience' or the similar notion to it. As to the position of 'transformational grammar', the notion of 'squish' which is proposed by Ross is discussed. Concerning the position of 'descriptive grammar', the notion of 'serial relationship' which is proposed by Quirk is discussed. Concerning the position of 'semantics', the notion of 'gradience' itself is discussed. In the various aspects of grammatical features, such as syntactic or semantic relationships, we

can find out that there is 'gradience' or the similar aspect to it. Indeed, Bolinger proposes the notion of 'gradience', but it seems a general argument. On the other hand, the notions similar to 'gradience' which Ross and Quirk proposed are rather concrete and specific.

Chapter 3 deals with the idea of 'transitivity' of verbs. Different linguists have different opinions towards 'transitivity'. I picked up two linguists working from a semantic point of view. 'Affectedness' is the concept which is proposed by Bolinger. Applying the concept of 'affectedness' to his idea of 'transitivity', Dixon, from the 'semantic' view, developed his idea of 'transitivity'. Dixon also quotes the idea of 'case grammar' to explain the idea of 'transitivity'. On the other hand, Hopper and Thompson also propose the idea of 'transitivity'. Their idea is to concretize the components of the idea of 'transitivity'. That is, their idea is to show which elements or factors (such as 'participants', 'volitionality' and so on) have something to do with the idea of 'transitivity'. In a sense, it is true that their work seems to be successful for analyzing the concept of 'transitivity'. But the idea of 'transitivity' they proposed is somewhat different from the ideas Bolinger and Dixon proposed. When we take the perspective of a generative linguist, the idea of Hopper and Thompson seems to be similar to the idea of 'topicalization', which is rather different from a semantic point of view.

Chapter 4 deals with 'gradience' between adverbs (adverbial prepositions) and prepositions (central or prototypical prepositions). There are many prepositions in a dictionary but they can be divided into three types as given below:

Group A: on, at, for, over, to, with

Group B: off, around, without, above, beyond, onto, across

Group C: prepositions in between Group A and Group B

Group A can be called the 'central prepositions', Group B the 'pseudo prepositions', and Group C the 'semi prepositions'. When considering 'gradience' between prepositions, I use key terms such as 'passivisation', 'idiomaticity', and 'transitivity'. The relationships between 'passivisation' and 'idiomaticity' are highly likely to show an affinity between them. 'Passivisation' is the key term whose meaning is how easily the verb phrases are passivised , that is, the degree of passivisability. When analyzing 'gradience' between prepositions, expressions composed of 'intransitive verb + preposition' are examined throughout an English-English dictionary. Of sentences which involve expressions composed of 'intransitive verb + preposition', there are some which can be easily passivised and others which cannot. Whether or not sentences which involve expressions composed of 'intransitive verb + preposition' can be easily passivised depends on the kind of prepositions they have in them.

Chapter 5 deals with 'gradience' between prepositions and adjectives. As the previous studies, Maling (1983) and Anderson (1997) are important. They picked up three words such as 'near', 'like', and 'worth' and they studied how adjectival or prepositional the three words given above were. The 'gradience' scale from adjectives to prepositions is as given below:

'near' (more adjectival) > 'like' > 'worth' (more prepositional)

Aarts (2007: 157, 219) also quotes the idea of Maling and Anderson, and Aarts supports the idea of 'gradience'. Of course, when we stand on the place to support the notion of 'gradience', 'gradience' from adjectives to prepositions can be recognized among three words as given above. But when supporting the traditional and Aristotelian 'dichotomy',

we can insist that the three words as given above have two different properties. That is, the two properties of 'adjectival' and 'prepositional' can appear according to the syntactic position in a sentence. However, Maling (1987) proposes the distribution of three words as given above, standing mainly on the syntactic view (Cf. Chapter 5, section 5.2.1.). It is true that only when we consider syntactic linear order, only the Aristotelian 'dichotomy' seems to be useful. But when focusing on the distribution, it is more useful to view things relatively. That is, it is more useful to recognize 'gradience' between adjectives and prepositions.

Chapter 6 deals with 'gradience' between adjectives and verbs. This is what Aarts calls 'IG', that is, 'Intersective Gradience'. I picked up 'apparent past-participles' through English-English dictionary. 'Apparent past-participles' involve not only past-participles of regular conjugation of verbs but also those arising from irregular conjugation of verbs. I set up three criteria for verbal properties and five criteria for adjectival properties. Based on those criteria, each 'apparent past-participle' is judged, concerning how verbal or adjectival each 'apparent past-participle' is. Concerning the criteria both of verbs and adjectives, I mainly referred to previous studies, particularly Aarts (2007). In keeping with the results of how many points each 'apparent past-participle' gets, we can find out how verbal or adjectival each 'apparent past-participle' is. Concerning 'apparent past-participles', it turns out that the more adjectival properties an 'apparent past-participle' has, it turns out that the more verbal properties it has. In contrast, the fewer verbal properties an 'apparent past-participle' has, the fewer adjectival properties it has. In Chapter 6, the relationship with 'transitivity' has also been discussed. It can be found out that 'apparent past-participles' which have more properties both verbal and adjectival have high 'transitivity' as well. The notion of 'transitivity' in Chapter 6 follows the one which Hopper and Thompson

(1980) proposed. Of course, concerning 'gradience' between verbs and adjectives, the same criticism as was discussed in Chapter 5 is voiced from a viewpoint of Aristotelian 'dichotomy'. That is, linguists who support 'dichotomy' would insist that not 'gradience' between adjectives and verbs but separated properties of adjectives and verbs should be adopted in keeping with the linear order of a sentence. They insist that past-participles have two different features. I partly agree with their opinion, but in this dissertation, I stand on the notion of 'gradience' and 'gradience' between verbs and adjectives are adopted and discussed.

Recall Chapter 4 to Chapter 6 where we can grasp 'gradience' from adverbs through prepositions to adjectives, based on verbs. Chapter 4 discusses what Aarts (2007) calls 'SG', that is, 'Subsective Gradience'. On the other hand, Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 discuss what Aarts (2007) calls 'IG', that is, 'Intersective Gradience'. Chapter 6 discusses 'gradience' between adjectives and verbs. In some way or other, verbs have something to do with the topics of Chapter 4 and Chapter 6. This is partly because Chapter 4 referred to the notions such as 'passivisation', 'idiomaticity', and 'transitivity'. These notions can be discussed in terms of the notion of verb. This is partly because Chapter 6 referred to the apparent past-participles, and through the research, the properties of verbs are made clear.

In this dissertation, I introduced the notion of 'gradience' in Chapter 1, and in Chapter 2, I showed how the notion of 'gradience' or the similar notion to 'gradience' has been used or applied in several linguistic areas such as 'semantics', 'descriptive grammar', and 'transformational grammar'. I have regarded the notion of 'gradience' as semantically self-explanatory, but is this attitude towards 'gradience' all right? From the perspective of the traditional Aristotelian 'dichotomy', the notion of 'gradience' is not a given notion. In the syntactic linear order of words, each word is thought to select the

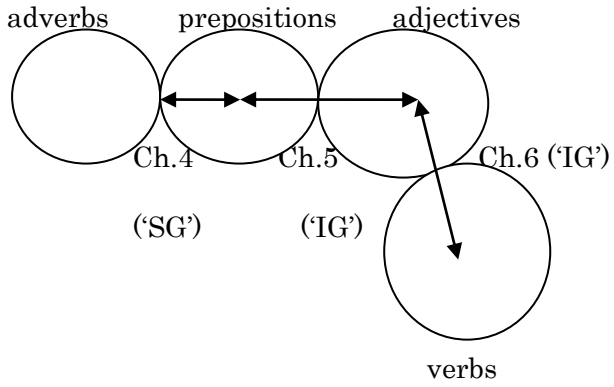
most appropriate feature. That is, in keeping with the position where each word is arranged, each word takes the feature of some part of speech. Let us take an example: 'The window is broken.' The word class of the word 'broken' allows two different interpretations from a 'gradience' point of view. That is, one is the 'past-participle' of the verb, and the other is the 'adjective'. And the word 'broken' can be interpreted in two ways in the sentence given above. Namely, two features such as 'adjective' and 'past-participle' appear in the word 'broken' at the same time. On the other hand, in terms of 'dichotomy', two types of 'broken' are given in advance. That is, the word *broken* has two types of 'broken', 'adjectival broken' and 'verbal broken'. In contrast to the notion of 'gradience', two types of feature do not appear at the same time, and each feature is selected at each time and in the most appropriate way. The difference between 'gradience' and 'dichotomy' is whether or not a word or a sentential structure takes two (or more) features of characteristics at the same time. The phrase of 'at the same time' means that two (or more) interpretations can be allowed within a sentence.

Chapter 7 reconsiders gradience from adverbs through prepositions to adjectives in an abstract way.

In summary, the critical difference between 'gradience' and 'dichotomy' is whether or not two types of interpretation of one word or one sentential structure are independent from each other. In this dissertation, not 'dichotomy' but rather 'gradience' is adopted. This is because, in my opinion, it can happen that two (or more) features are not separated sharply but are connected with each other, that is, they are not simply independent.

Finally, again, let us reconfirm the relationships from Chapter 4 through Chapter 5 to Chapter 6. When we use the words such as 'IG', that is, 'Intersective Gradience' and 'SG', that is, 'Subsective Gradience', which are proposed by Aarts (2007), we can show

that Chapter 4 is concerned with 'Intersective Gradience', and Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 are concerned with 'Subsective Gradience'. The diagram below shows the relationships among chapters.



Notes to Chapter 3

Dirven, R. and Radden, G. (2007: 286-287) discuss grammatical 'transitivity'.

(1) a. Dorothy *tore* the letter (into pieces).

b. Brewster *wrote* the letter.

c. Tracy *read* the letter.

d. Baxter *glanced at* the letter.

Dirven, R. and Radden, G. (2007: 286)

Concerning the four sentences from (1-a) to (1-d), Dirven and Radden tested 'gradience' of 'transitivity'. Of course, Dirven and Radden use the phrase 'decreasing degrees of transitivity', but this phrase means 'gradience' of 'transitivity'. Four criteria of 'transitivity' are given as below:

whether or not the clause is passivised

whether or not the clause has a resultative meaning

whether or not the four clauses from (1-a) to (1-d) given above can become the answers of 'What did X do to Y?'

whether or not the adverb 'completely' can be inserted in the four clauses

	passive	**result**	**What did X do to Y?**	**completely**
tear the letter	OK	OK	OK	OK
write the letter	OK	*	*	*
read the letter	?	*	*	*

glance at the letter	*?	*	*	*

Dirven, R. and Radden, G. (2007: 287)

The four criteria and the results of the clauses are given above and in the table above.[13] What kind of information can we get from the table given above? The clause (1-a) can satisfy the four criteria and the clause (1-a) has the highest 'transitivity'. In contrast, the clauses from (1-b) to (1-d) can barely satisfy one criterion. That is, the clauses from (1-b) to (1-d) can satisfy only one criterion, namely, 'whether or not the clause is passivised'. It is true that the criterion such as 'whether or not the clause is passivised' and it is only a necessary condition for 'transitivity' but this has a multiplicity of uses.

In the paradigm of Hopper and Thompson (1980), what kind of information concerning the degree of 'transitivity' can we get?

	tear	*write*	*read*	*glance (at)*
Participants	two	two	two	two
Kinesis	action	action	non-action	non-action
Aspect	telic	?	?	?
Punctuality	punctual	?	?	?
Volitionality	volitional	volitional	volitional	?/non-volitional
Affirmation	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative
Mode	realis	realis	realis	realis
Agency	A high in potency	?		?
Points	8	5	4	3

[13] In the table given above, the notation is a little bit different from the original text. For example, I do not use the symbol tick but instead I use the symbol 'OK'.

Table: 'Gradience' on 'transitivity' among four verbs ('tear', 'write', 'read', and 'glance'), based on the paradigm of Hopper and Thompson (1980)

In the paradigm of Hopper and Thompson (1980), concerning the criteria from A to H, there are two options or alternatives. For example, concerning the criterion B. kinesis, there are two options such as 'action' and 'non-action'. In this case, one option, 'action' is higher than the other option (non-action) on the degree of 'transitivity'. As a result, regarding the sentence which involves the verb 'tear', criteria from A to H satisfy the option which indicates the high degree of 'transitivity'. Concerning 'points' in the table given above, when clauses which each involves one of four verbs satisfy the high degree of 'transitivity' on each criterion, one point is given. For example, regarding the clause which involves the verb 'tear' on the criterion B. kinesis, the option 'action' which indicates the high degree of 'transitivity', is selected, and one point is given. As a result, concerning the clauses with one of four verbs, 'tear', 'write', 'read', and 'glance (at)', we can get 'gradience' with respect to 'transitivity' as given below:

'tear' > 'write' > 'read' > 'glance (at)'

The symbol '>' indicates that the word on the left side of it has a higher degree of 'transitivity' than the one on the right side.

In Dixon (2005), the four verbs given above are classified into the types like these:

'tear': AFFECT-h / the BREAK subtype (Breaking role)

'write': AFFECT-g / the BUILD subtype (Product role)

'read': SPEAKING-c / the SHOUT subtype

'glance (at)': ATTENTION-f / the LOOK subtype

Dixon (2005: 486-488)

On the other hand, how do Dirven and Radden describe the patterns or types in the four verbs given above?

'tear': a physical action: it completely affects an object and can eventually lead to its destruction

'write': an action that brings an entity into existence

'read': a purely mental action, and even if the action of reading may be intense on the part of the reader, it does not affect the book, paper or letter read.

'glance (at)': a brief perceptual action and certainly less intense than the action of reading

Dirven and Radden (2007: 286-287)

From the viewpoint of what Bolinger calls 'affectedness of the action', what Dixon calls verbs of 'AFFECT' type gets a high degree of 'transitivity'.

When we compare the verb 'read' with the verb 'glance (at)', the verb 'glance (at)' is originally an intransitive verb according to the data of *OED* (1978, Volume Ⅳ: 199).

<intransitive use>

c1450 *Merlin* 198 The stroke of the ax glenched, and smote the house bak asunder.

<transitive use>

1590 GREENE *Never too late* (1600) F, Finding the sunne too glorious for my sight, I glaunst my looke.

In general, when a preposition is inserted, the degree of 'transitivity' is decreased. Concerning the verb 'glance', the degree of 'transitivity' is lowered. This is because we find 'glance at' in 'Baxter glanced at the letter', but the verb used is only 'glance'..

Notes to Chapter 4

In section 4.5.1., using the idiomatic dictionary, Cowie and Mackin (1975), I classified the prepositions of [A2 pass] type of idioms into three groups such as 'Group A', 'Group B', and 'Group C'. The prepositions of 'Group A' are the ones which are connected mostly with 'intransitive verbs', and the sentences composed of 'intransitive verb and preposition (Group A)' are highly likely to be passivised. On the other hand, the prepositions of 'Group B' are still less connected with 'intransitive verbs', and the sentences composed of 'intransitive verb and preposition (Group B)' are far less likely to be passivised. The prepositions of 'Group C' are in between the prepositions of 'Group A' and 'Group B'.

Brinton, Laurel J. and Traugott, Elizabeth C. (2005: 125) discuss the difference between 'prepositional verbs' and 'phrasal verbs'. Brinton *et al.* also consults the idiomatic dictionary, Cowie and Mackin (1975). As a previous study, Brinton and Traugott (2005) quote O'Dowd (1998) and introduce O'Dowd's findings on spoken Modern English as given below:

> … O'Dowd (1998) finds that in her spoken corpus of Modern English, *up*, *out*, *over*, *down*, *off*, and *around* and are specialized as particles with non-literal "situating", especially aspectual meaning; most do not have or need not have NP complements (e.g., *eat up*). By contrast, *in*, *on*, *about*, *by*, and *through* are specialized as prepositions with relatively literal spatio-directional meaning; most are "linking" elements with NP complements. Brinton and Traugott (2005: 125)

Concerning the prepositions, *up*, *out*, *over*, *down*, *off*, and *around*, there are no

prepositions such as *up*, *out*, and *down* in my research. The prepositions *off* and *around* are in 'Group B', and *over* is in 'Group A' in my research. On the other hand, concerning the prepositions, *in*, *on*, *about*, *by*, and *through*, there is no prepositions *by* in my research, but *about*, *in*, and *through* are in 'Group C' and *on* is in 'Group A'. From the viewpoint of the prepositions in O'Dowd (1998) and Brinton et al. (2005), most prepositions of 'Group A' and 'Group C' have 'spatio-directional' and 'linking' meanings.

Notes to Chapter 5

Crystal (1967), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (2004: 207), describes the characteristics of adjectives. Crystal lists five criteria as given below:

ability to form adverb by adding '-ly'
ability to inflect for degree (without '-ly' suffix) within nominal group functioning as subject (i.e. to exclude 'We seem to be more inside than outside', etc.)
ability to take intensifiers, especially 'very', within nominal group functioning as subject
ability to occur in the slot 'a / the ~ Noun' (whose 'Noun' stands for any of the central class of nouns)
ability to occur in predicative position after the sub-class of verbs including 'be', 'seem', and 'become'

Crystal (1967), reprinted in Aarts *et al.* (2004: 207)

With respect to the criteria given above, I would like to research into how the three words such as 'worth', 'like', and 'near' are analyzed with respect to the adjectival degree. The three words such as 'worth', 'like', and 'near' are known to have more than one part of speech. For example, the word, 'near' has the three parts of speech such as 'prepositions', 'adverbs', and 'adjectives' other than 'verbs'.

< near>

They headed for the nearest beach. (Shown in the category of Adverb, *LDOCE*: 1163)
It took nearly two hours to get here. (Shown in the category of Adverbial usage, *ibid*: 1163)

They say that love is very near to hate. (Shown in the category of Adverbial usage, *ibid*: 1162)

They headed for the nearest beach. (Shown in the category of Adjectival usage, *ibid*: 1163)

We can meet at the pub or in the restaurant, whichever's nearer for you. (Shown in the category of Adjectival usage, *ibid*: 1163)

<like>

Snow showers are likely tomorrow. (Shown in the category of Adverb, *ibid*: 1014)

He's growing more like his father every day. (Shown in the category of Prepositional usage, *ibid*: 1012)

He's very like his brother. (Shown in the category of Prepositional usage, *ibid*: 1012)

There is no example

She was like, huh? (Shown in the category of Adverb, spoken, *ibid*.: 1014)

<worth>

There is no example.

There is no example.

There is no example.

A lot of the small towns in the area are definitely worth visiting. (Shown in the category of Adjectival usage, *LDOCE*: 2028)

Do you know how much is this ring worth? (Shown in the category of Adjectival usage, *ibid*: 2028)

	near	**like**	**worth**
adding '-ly'	OK	OK	*
more, most (-er, -est)	OK	OK	*
intensifier 'very'	OK	OK	*
'a / the ~ Noun'	OK	*	OK
'be', 'seem', and 'become'	OK	?	OK
Points	5	3	2

Regarding the words such as 'near', 'like', and 'worth', the adjectival degree is listed in the table given above.

'near' (5 points) > 'like' (3 points) > 'worth' (2 points)

The symbol '>' means that the left side of '>' is higher than the right side in adjectival degree.

Concerning the word, 'near', I picked up the examples in a dictionary (*LDOCE*), and they are shown in the categories of adjectives and adverbs. Next, regarding the word 'like', one example is shown in the adverbial category and three examples are shown in the prepositional category. Lastly, concerning the word, 'worth', two examples are shown in the adjectival category.

	'near'	**'like'**	**'worth'**
Adjectival examples	3 cases	0	2 cases

Adverbial examples	2 cases	1 case	0
Prepositional examples	0	3 cases	0

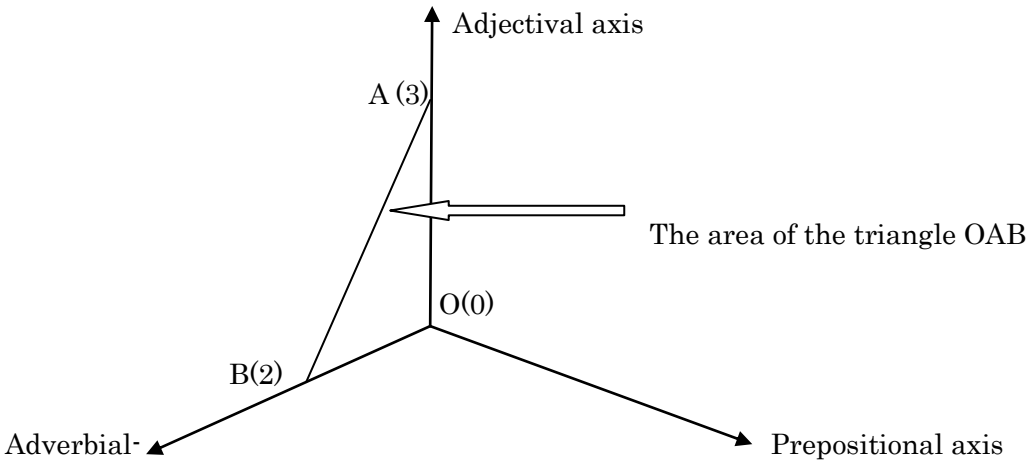
According to Crystal's criteria, we realize that the word 'near' is most adjectival, the word 'worth' is least adjectival, and the word 'like' is in between.

On the other hand, as far as the examples I picked up from the dictionary go, *LDOCE*, the examples are shown only in the adjectival category. From the viewpoint of the number of the examples, the adjectival degree is as given below:

'near' (3 examples) > 'worth' (2 examples) > 'like' (0 example)

From the perspective of 'gradience', there is a difference between Crystal's criteria and the categorization of parts of speech in the dictionary.

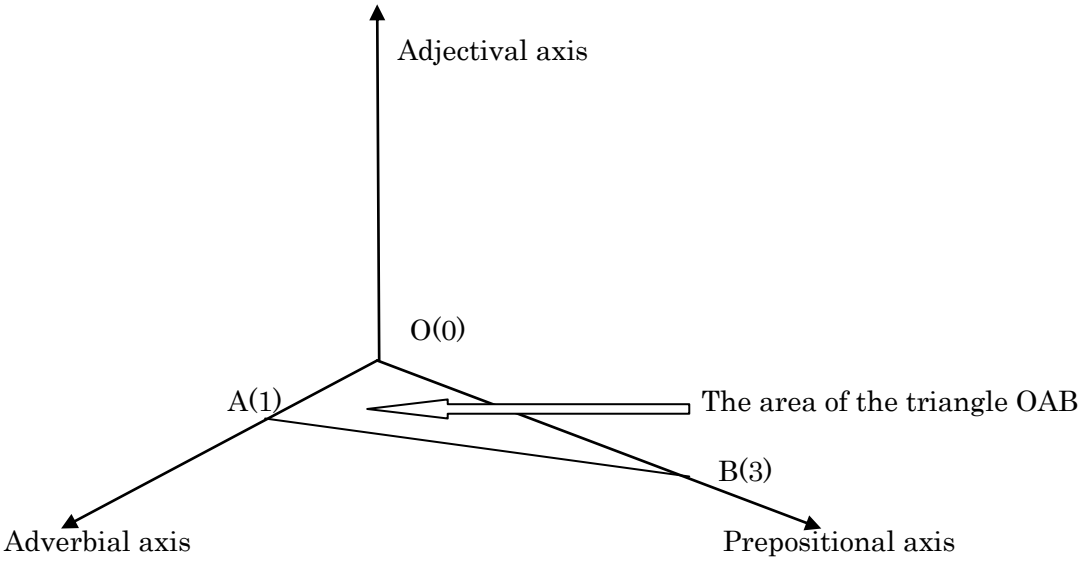
<near>



Concerning the word 'near', 'near' has three 'adjectival examples', and two 'adverbial

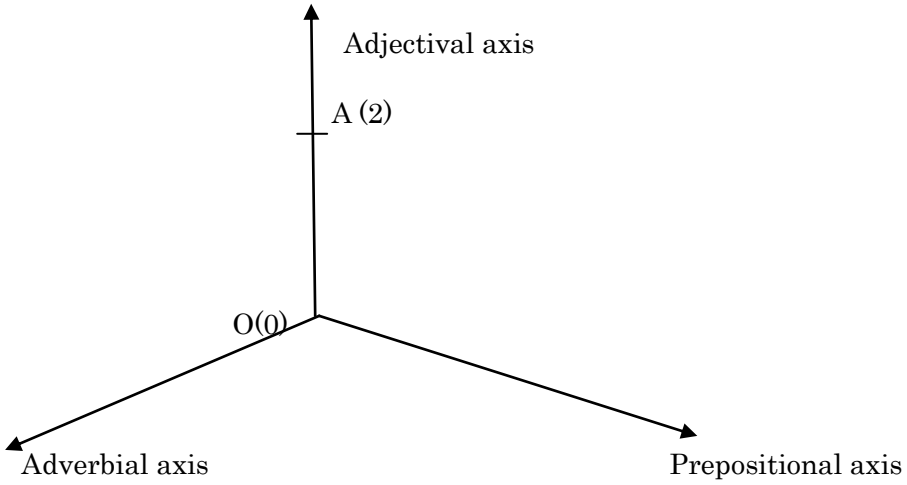
examples'. The area of the triangle OAB given above can be calculated, and the numerical value is 'three' (= 3×3×1/2)

<like>



Concerning the word 'like', 'like' has one 'adverbial example', and three 'prepositional examples'. The area of the triangle OAB given above also can be calculated, and the numerical value is 'three halves' (= 1×3×1/2).

<worth>



Concerning the word 'worth', 'worth' has only two 'adjectival examples'. This case cannot make a triangle, that is, the numerical value of the area is 'zero' (= 2×0×1/2).

In my thesis, the 'gradience' of grammatical relationships is mainly discussed. The notion of 'gradience' is the concept of 'more-or-less' and the degree matter. In my opinion, the more a word shares or belongs to two or more parts of speech, the higher the degree of 'gradience' the word has. The three graphs concerning 'near', 'like', and 'worth', given above show the degree the words such as 'near', 'like', and 'worth' arrive at, regarding 'gradience' of parts of speech. From the results of the calculation of triangle areas, the degree of 'gradience' among the three words is given below:

'near' (triangle area: three) > 'like' (triangle area: three twice) > 'worth' (triangle area: zero)

The symbol '>' indicates that the left side of '>' is higher than the right side of '>' in the degree of 'gradience'.

Appendix to Chapter 3

Dixon (2005: 485-491) classifies English verbs into several categories or groups. At first, Dixon classifies them into two types such as 'Primary-A verb types' and 'Primary-B verb types'. Then, Dixon classifies these two verb types into subclasses.

Concerning the former, that is, 'Primary-A verb types', Dixon classifies them into eleven subclasses. On the other hand, concerning the latter, that is, 'Primary-B verb types', Dixon classifies them into ten subclasses. In addition, regarding these subclasses, Dixon also classifies them into more detailed subclasses, that is, sub-subclasses, but, in my thesis, I would like to pick up a representative from each verbal classification. For example, concerning 'Primary-A verb types', 'Motion type' is picked up and it is classified into seven subclasses such as from 'Motion-a, the RUN subtype' to 'Motion-g, the DROP subtype'. 'Motion-a, the RUN subtype' has twenty-seven examples such as 'run, walk, crawl, and so on'. In this situation, I picked up the representative verb, that is, 'run' and I examined into 'transitivity' of the verb from the viewpoint of Hopper and Thompson's paradigm. The classification of the verbal types, the subclasses and 'transitivity' of each verb are given below:

<< Primary-A verb types >>

1. < MOTION type >

'run, arrive, take, follow, carry, throw, drop'

MOTION type	Run	Arrive	Take	Follow	Carry	Throw	Drop
A. Participants	one	one	two	two	two	two	two
B. Kinesis	action	action	action	action	action	action	action

C. Aspect	telic	telic	telic	telic	telic	telic	telic
D. Punctuality	punctual	punctual	punctual	punctual	punctual	punctual	punctual
E. Volitionality	volitional	volitional(?)	volitional	volitional	volitional	volitional	volitional(?)
F. Affirmation	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	negative
G. Mode	realis	realis	realis	realis	realis	realis	realis
H. Agency	low	low	high	high	high	high	high
Points	6	5	8	8	8	8	6

(1-a) He ran (for) a mile. (Dixon: 103)

(1-b) arrive at the station (*ibid*: 104)

(1-c) take the pig to / for Mary (*ibid*: 106)

(1-d) They followed the river. / That road follows the spur of the hill. (*ibid*: 107)

(1-e) John carried the banana in his hand. (*ibid*: 108)

(1-f) John threw the javelin (towards the grandstand). (*ibid*: 109)

(1-g) John deliberately dropped the vase. (*ibid*: 109)

2. < REST type >

'sit, stay, put, contain, hold, open'

REST type	Sit	Stay	Put	Contain	Hold	Open
A. Participants	one	one	two	two	two	one
B. Kinesis	action	action	action	action	action	action
C. Aspect	telic	telic	telic	telic	telic	telic
D. Punctuality	punctual	punctual	punctual	punctual	punctual	punctual
E. Volitionality	Volitional(?)	volitional	volitional	?	volitional	?

F. Affirmation	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative
G. Mode	realis	realis	realis	realis	realis	realis
H. Agency	low	low	low	high	high	low
Points	5	6	7	7	8	5

(2-a) How long is she staying? (Dixon: 104)

(2-b) She put the box down. (*ibid*: 106)

(2-c) The museum contains a number of original artworks. (*LDOCE*: 363)

(2-d) John held the banana in his hand. (Dixon: 108)

(2-e) This door opens easily. (*ibid*)

3. < AFFECT type >

'touch, hit, stab, rub, wrap, stretch, build, break'

AFFECT type	Touch	Hit	Stab	Rub	Wrap	Stretch	Build
A. Participants	two	two	two	two	two	two	two
B. Kinesis	action	action	action	action	action	action	action
C. Aspect	telic	telic	telic	telic	telic	telic	telic
D. Punctuality	punctual	punctual	punctual	punctual	punctual	punctual	punctual
E. Volitionality	volitional	volitional	volitional	volitional	volitional	volitional	volitional
F. Affirmation	affirmative	affirmative	Negative(?)	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	negative
G. Mode	realis	realis	realis	realis	realis	realis	realis
H. Agency	High(?)	high	high	High(?)	High(?)	high	high
Points	7	8	7	7	7	8	8

(3-a) Her plight has touched the hearts of people around the world. (*LDOCE*: 1866)

(3-b) He raised the hammer and hit the ball. (*ibid.*: 832)

(3-c) He stabbed his dagger into the ground. (Dixon: 113)

(3-d) He rubbed the table with that cloth. (*ibid*: 114)

(3-e) John wrapped the box in the paper. (Dixon: 115)

(3-f) stretch it or a rack (*ibid*: 116)

(3-g) Mary built those bricks into a wall. (*ibid*: 117)

(3-h) John broke the vase. (*ibid*: 118)

4. < GIVING type >

'give'

5. < OWN type >

'own'

6. < CORPOREAL type >

'eat'

7. < WEATHER type >

'rain'

	Give	Own	Eat	Rain
A. Participants	one	one	two	one
B. Kinesis	action	action(?)	action	action
C. Aspect	telic	telic	telic	telic
D. Punctuality	punctual	punctual	punctual	punctual
E. Volitionality	volitional(?)	volitional	volitional	nonvolitional
F. Affirmation	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	?

G. Mode	realis	realis	realis	realis
H. Agency	high(?)	?	high	low
Points	7	6	8	4

(4) John gave a book to Tom. (Dixon: 122)

(5) His father owns an old sedan but John possesses a fine new red sports car. (*ibid*: 123)

(6) She has eaten lunch. (*ibid*: 124)

(7) It is raining. (*ibid*: 127)

8. < COMPETITION type >

'compete'

9. < SOCIAL CONTRACT type >

'appoint'

10. < USING type >

'use'

11. < OBEYING type >

'obey'

	Compete	**Appoint**	**Use**	**Obey**
A. Participants	one	two	two	two
B. Kinesis	action	action(?)	action	action
C. Aspect	telic	telic	telic	telic
D. Punctuality	punctual	punctual	punctual	punctual
E. Volitionality	volitional(?)	volitional	volitional	Volitional(?)

F. Affirmation	Affirmative(?)	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative(?)
G. Mode	realis	realis	realis	realis
H. Agency	low	high	low	low
Points	5	7	7	5

(8) John and Mary competed with each other. (Dixon: 128)

(9) The committee appointed a day in June for celebrations. (*LDOCE*: 69)

(10) He used all the potatoes. (Dixon: 129)

(11) He refused to obey their orders. (*LDOCE*: 1198)

<< Primary-B verb types >>

1. < ATTENTION type >

'see, show, recognize, discover, witness, look, watch'

ATTENTION type	See	Show	Recognize	Discover	Witness	Look	Watch
A. Participants	two	two	two	two	two	two	two
B. Kinesis	action(?)	action	non-action	action	non-action	action	action
C. Aspect	?	telic	?	telic	?	?	telic
D. Punctuality	?	punctual	?	?	?	?	punctual
E. Volitionality	Volitional(?)	volitional	non-volitional	Volitional(?)	non-volitional	volitional	volitional(?)
F. Affirmation	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	negative
G. Mode	realis	realis	realis	realis	realis	realis	realis
H. Agency	low	low	low	low	low	low	high
Points	3	7	3	5	3	5	8

(1-a) John saw Mary. (Dixon: 131)

(1-b) John showed the parrot to Mary. (*ibid*: 132)

(1-c) I didn't recognize you in your uniform. (*LDOCE*: 1454)

(1-d) The exercises let students discover math concepts on their own. (*ibid.*: 481)

(1-e) Several residents claim to have witnessed the attack. (*ibid.*: 2016)

(1-f) The men all turned to look at her as she entered the room. (*ibid.*: 1033)

(1-g) I watched john eat his dinner. (Dixon: 133)

2. < THINKING type >

'think, assume, ponder, remember, know, conclude, solve, believe'

THINKING type	**Think**	**Assume**	**Ponder**	**Remember**
A. Participants	two	two	two	two
B. Kinesis	non-action	non-action	non-action	non-action
C. Aspect	?	?	?	?
D. Punctuality	?	?	?	?
E. Volitionality	volitional(?)	volitional(?)	volitional(?)	Volitional(?)
F. Affirmation	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative
G. Mode	realis	realis	realis	realis
H. Agency	low	low	low	low
Points	3	3	3	3

(2-a) She lay awake thinking about the money. (*LDOCE*: 1834)

(2-b) I began to assume the worst. (*ibid.*: 88)

(2-c) He continued to ponder the problem as he walked home. (*ibid.*: 1342)

(2-d) Do you remember Rosa Davies? (*ibid.*: 1473)

THINKING type	Know	Conclude	Solve	Believe
A. Participants	two	two	two	two
B. Kinesis	non-action	action(?)	action	non-action
C. Aspect	?	telic	telic	?
D. Punctuality	?	punctual	punctual	?
E. Volitionality	volitional(?)	volitional	volitional	volitional(?)
F. Affirmation	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative
G. Mode	realis	realis	realis	realis
H. Agency	low	low	high	low
Points	3	6	7	3

(2-e) I need to know more about the job before I decide whether to apply for it. (*LDOCE*: 967)

(2-f) Francis, having concluded his business with James, left for Miami. (*ibid.*: 346)

(2-g) Charlie thinks money will solve his problems. (*ibid.*: 1675)

(2-h) You shouldn't believe everything you read. (*ibid.*: 139)

3. < SPEAKING type >

'talk, discuss, shout, report, inform, tell, order, forgive'

SPEAKING type	Talk	Discuss	Shout	Report
A. Participants	two	two	two	two
B. Kinesis	action	action	action	action
C. Aspect	telic	telic	telic	telic

D. Punctuality	punctual	punctual	punctual	punctual
E. Volitionality	volitional	volitional	volitional	volitional
F. Affirmation	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative
G. Mode	realis	realis	realis	realis
H. Agency	low(?)	high(?)	high(?)	high(?)
Points	7	7	7	7

(3-a) What shall I talk about with your father? (Dixon: 150)

(3-b) Littman refused to discuss the case publicly. (*LDOCE*: 482)

(3-c) shout to the children that dinner is ready (Dixon: 151)

(3-d) The Judge reported him to be insane. (*ibid*: 153)

SPEAKING type	**Inform**	**Tell**	**Order**	**Forgive**
A. Participants	two	two	two	two
B. Kinesis	action	action	action	action
C. Aspect	telic	telic	telic	?
D. Punctuality	punctual	punctual	punctual	?
E. Volitionality	volitional	volitional	volitional	volitional
F. Affirmation	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative
G. Mode	realis	realis	realis	realis
H. Agency	high(?)	?	high(?)	low(?)
Points	7	7	7	5

(3-e) I informed John of the announcement (about the picnic). (Dixon: 154)

(3-f) I told the news (about the accident) to John. (*ibid*: 155)

(3-g) Her doctor had ordered her to rest for a week. (*LDOCE*: 1231)

(3-h) I've tried to forgive him for what he said. (*ibid.*: 685)

4. < DECIDING type >

'resolve, choose'

5. < LIKING type >

'like'

6. < ANNOYING type >

'annoy'

	Resolve	Choose	Like	Annoy
A. Participants	two	two	two	two
B. Kinesis	action	action	non-action	non-action
C. Aspect	telic	telic	?	?
D. Punctuality	punctual	punctual	?	?
E. Volitionality	volitional	volitional	volitional(?)	volitional(?)
F. Affirmation	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative
G. Mode	realis	realis	realis	realis
H. Agency	?	low(?)	low(?)	high(?)
Points	7	7	3	3

(4-a) Tom resolved that he would not be beaten. (Dixon: 144)

(4-b) I chose that we should have Christmas dinner in the evening this year. (*ibid*: 145)

(5) Fred likes horses. (*ibid*: 160)

(6) The proposal annoys Fred. (*ibid*: 164)

7. < ACTING type >

'act'

8. < HAPPENING type >

'happen'

9. < COMPARING type >

'compare'

10. < RELATING type >

'relate'

	Act	Happen	Compare	Relate
A. Participants	one	one	two	two
B. Kinesis	action	action	action	action
C. Aspect	telic	telic	telic(?)	?
D. Punctuality	punctual	punctual	punctual(?)	?
E. Volitionality	volitional	non-volitional	volitional	volitional
F. Affirmation	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative
G. Mode	realis	realis	realis	realis
H. Agency	?	high(?)	?	?
Points	6	5	5	5

(7) He is acting like a fool. (Dixon: 169)

(8) The fight just happened. (*ibid*: 169)

(9) He compared Headley with Hobbs. (*ibid*: 170)

(10) The report seeks to relate the rise in crime to an increase in unemployment. (*LDOCE*: 1467)

At first, I would like to check the results of the 'Primary-A verb types'. Concerning the data of Hopper and Thompson's paradigm on 'transitivity', verbs of the 'Motion type' get more than 5 points. On average, verbs of the 'Motion type' have 7 points. Verbs of the 'Rest type' also have more than 5 points. On average, verbs of the 'Rest type' have 6.3 points. Verbs of the 'Affect type' have more than 7 points. On average, verbs of the 'Affect type' have 7.4 points. Regarding verbs from the 'Giving type' to the 'Obeying type', there are no subclasses and there is only one example in each type. This is why we do not calculate average points, and only the actual scores of each verb are considered. From the table given above, verbs other than the verb, 'rain' have more than 5 points. More than half of the verbs get more than 7 points. As a result, concerning the results of 'Primary-A verb types', the degree of 'transitivity' is, in general, very high. When the results are limited to the three types: 'Motion type', 'Rest type', and 'Affect type', the 'gradience' of 'transitivity' is given as below:

Verbs of the 'Affect type' (7.4 points on average) > Verbs of the 'Motion type' (7 points on average) > Verbs of the 'Rest type' (6.3 points on average)

Concerning the symbol, '>', '>' means that the left side of the '>' is higher than the right side in the degree of 'transitivity'.

Next, I would like to check the results of the 'Primary-B verb types'. Concerning the data of Hopper and Thomson's paradigm, verbs of the 'Attention type' get more than 3 points. On average, verbs of the 'Attention type' have 4.9 points. Verbs of the 'Thinking type' have more than three points. On average, verbs of the 'Thinking type' get 3.9 points, but most verbs of this type get 3 points. Verbs of the 'Speaking type' have more than 5 points, but most verbs of this type get 7 points. On average, verbs of the

'Speaking type' get 6.8 points. Concerning the verbs of the 'Deciding type', there are two examples of the subclasses. Two of them get 7 points. From the verbs of the 'Liking type' to the 'Relating type', there is only one example in each type, and they get more than 3 points. As a result, when we compare the verbs of the 'Primary-B verb types' with the verbs of the 'Primary-A verb types', we find that the verbs of the 'Primary-B verb types' are lower than those of the 'Primary-A verb types' in the degree of 'transitivity'. When the results are limited to the three types: 'Attention type', 'Thinking type', and 'Speaking type', the following 'gradience' of 'transitivity' is given as below:

verbs of the 'Speaking type' (6.8 points on average) > verbs of the 'Attention type' (4.9 points on average) > verbs of the 'Thinking type' (3.9 points on average)

Concerning the symbol, '>', the left side of '>' is higher than the right side on the degree of 'transitivity'. In general, verbs of the 'Primary-A verb types' get the higher degree of 'transitivity' than verbs of the 'Primary-B verb types', but the result of verbs of the 'Speaking type' is similar to the result of verbs of the 'Primary-A verb types' of the degree of 'transitivity'.

Leech (1987: Chapter 2) classifies verbs into eight types from A to H. The classification is from A 'MOMENTARY VERBS' to H 'VERBS OF BODILY SENSATION'. For example, concerning A 'MOMENTARY VERBS', the examples are given below:

hiccough, hit, jump, kick, knock, nod, tap, wink

(Leech, 1987: 23)

Concerning Leech's classification from A to H, when each example has its counterpart in

Dixon's classification, the classification is described in parentheses. For example, concerning A 'MOMENTARY VERBS', hiccough (no counterpart), hit (AFFECT-b / HIT), jump (MOTION-a / RUN), kick (AFFECT-b / HIT), and so on. In parentheses, on the left side of the symbol '/', the type of classification is described and on the right side, the subtype of classification is described.

A. 'MOMENTARY VERBS'

hiccough (no counterpart), **hit** (AFFECT-b / HIT), **jump** (MOTION-a / RUN), **kick** (AFFECT-b / HIT), **knock** (AFFECT-b / HIT), **nod** (no counterpart), **tap** (AFFECT-b / HIT), **wink** (CORPOREAL)

B. 'TRANSITIONAL EVENT VERBS'

arrive (MOTION-b / ARRIVE), **die** (CORPOREAL), **fall** (MOTION-g / DROP), **land** (REST-c / PUT), **leave** (REST-c / PUT), **lose** (GIVING / OWN and COMPETITION), **stop** (BEGINNING)

C. 'ACTIVITY VERBS'

drink (CORPOREAL), **eat** (CORPOREAL), **play** (MOTION-a / RUN and COMPETITION), **rain** (WEATHER), **read** (SPEAKING-c / SHOUT), **work** (SOCIAL CONTRACT and USING), **write** (AFFECT-g / BUILD and SPEAKING-a / TALK)

D. 'PROCESS VERBS'

change (HAPPENING), **grow** (CORPOREAL), **mature** (no counterpart), **slowdown** (SPEED), **widen** (DIMENSION), **deteriorate** (no counterpart)

E. 'VERBS OF INERT PERCEPTION'

feel (CORPOREAL, ATTENTION, THINKING-e / know and SEEM), **hear** (ATTENTION-a / SEE), **see** (ATTENTION-a / SEE), **smell** (ATTENTION and CORPOREAL), **taste** (CORPOREAL and ATTENTION)

F. 'VERBS OF INERT COGNITION'

believe (THINKING-h / BELIEVE), **forget** (THINKING-d / REMEMBER), **hope** (WANTING), **imagine** (THINKING-a / THINK), **know** (THINKING-e / KNOW), **suppose** (THINKING-b / ASSUME), **understand** (THINKING-e / KNOW)

G. 'STATE VERBS OF HAVING AND BEING'

belong to (GIVING / OWN), **contain** (REST-d / CONTAIN), **consist of** (COMPARING), **cost** (COMPARING), **depend on** (RELATING), **deserve** (WANTING), **have** (OWN / GIVING), **matter** (MATTER), **own** (GIVING / OWN), **resemble** (COMPARING)

H. 'VERBS OF BODILY SENSATION'

ache (CORPOREAL), **feel** (CORPOREAL, ATTENTION, THINKING-e / KNOW, and SEEM), **hurt** (CORPOREAL), **itch** (no counterpart), **tingle** (no counterpart)

Leech describes the features of the eight types of verbs as given below:

A. **'MOMENTARY VERBS'**: These verbs refer to happenings so momentary that it is difficult to think of them as having duration.

B. **'TRANSIYIONAL EVENT VERBS'**: ・・・ 'event verbs' denoting transition into a state are used with the Progressive to indicate an *approach* to the *transition*, ・・・

C. **'ACTIVITY VERBS'**: ・・・ they more usually occur with the Progressive, as they refer to a continuing, though bounded, activity ・・・. The important point is that the verb tells us something is 'going on'.

D. **'PROCESS VERBS'**: As a process ordinarily has duration, but not indefinite duration, these verbs also tend to go with the Progressive Aspect ・・・.

E. **'VERBS OF INERT PERCEPTION'**: ・・・ where the perceiver is actively directing his attention towards some object.

F. 'VERBS OF INERT COGNITION': ・・・ like the verbs of perception above, are passive in meaning.

G. 'STATE VERBS OF HAVING AND BEING': In this class, together with the key verbs *be* and *have*, belong verbs which include, as part of their meaning, the notion of 'being' or 'having'.

H. 'VERBS OF BODILY SENSATION': ・・・ when referring to a temporary state, ・・・

(Leech, 1987: 23-27)

Towards Leech's classification of verbs, as with Dixon's classification of verbs, I would like to research into the degree of 'transitivity' on verbs of each classification. Concerning the features of Leech's classification, there is an important point in A, B, C, D, and H. In the classification of A, B, and H, the aspect of each verb is a momentary, transitional, or temporary state. On the other hand, in the classification of C and D, the aspect of each verb is continuing or durative. This difference of the features is reflected in criteria C and D of Hopper and Thompson's paradigm on the degree of 'transitivity'.

A. MOMENTARY VERBS	**Hiccough**	**Hit**	**Jump**	**Kick**
A. Participants	one	two	one	two
B. Kinesis	action	action	action	action
C. Aspect	telic	telic	telic	telic
D. Punctuality	punctual	punctual	punctual	punctual
E. Volitionality	non-volitional	?	volitional	volitional
F. Affirmation	negative (?)	?	affirmative	affirmative
G. Mode	realis	realis	realis	realis

H. Agency	low	high	low	high
Points	4	6	6	8

(A-1) He raised the hammer and hit the bell. (*LDOCE*: 832)

(A-2) There was a scuffle and he kicked me in the stomach. (*ibid.*: 957)

(A-3) He jumped up and down. (*Leech*: 23)

A. MOMENTARY VERBS	Knock	Nod	Tap	Wink
A. Participants	two	one	two	two
B. Kinesis	action	action	action	action
C. Aspect	telic	telic	telic	telic
D. Punctuality	punctual	punctual	punctual	punctual
E. Volitionality	volitional	volitional	volitional	volitional
F. Affirmation	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative(?)	affirmative
G. Mode	realis	realis	realis	realis
H. Agency	high	low	high(?)	low
Points	8	6	6	7

(A-4) He nodded. / He was nodding. (Leech: 23)

(A-5) He turned as someone tapped him on the shoulder. (*LDOCE*: 1802)

(A-6) He winked an eye at his companion. (*ibid.*: 2011)

B. TRANSITIONAL	Arrive	Die	Fall	Land	Leave	Lose	Stop

A. Participants	one	one	one	one	two	two	one
B. Kinesis	action	non-action	action	action	action	Action (?)	action
C. Aspect	telic	telic	telic	telic	telic	telic	telic
D. Punctuality	punctual	punctual	punctual	punctual	punctual	punctual	punctual
E. Volitionality	volitional (?)	non-volitional	non-volitional	volitional	volitional	non-volitional	volitional
F. Affirmation	affirmative	negative(?)	negative(?)	affirmative	affirmative(?)	negative	affirmative
G. Mode	realis	realis	realis	realis	realis	realis	realis
H. Agency	low	low	low	low	low	low	low
Points	5	3	4	6	6	4	6

(B-1) The train was arriving. (Leech: 23)

(B-2) He was dying. / He died. (*ibid*: 23)

(B-3) His dark hair fell over his face. (*LDOCE*: 613)

(B-4) The helicopter was landing. (Leech: 23)

(B-5) She had to leave her home because of domestic violence. (*ibid*: 1157)

(B-6) Hundreds of people lost their homes in the floods. (*LDOCE*: 1037)

(B-7) The bus is stopping. (Leech: 23)

C. ACTIVITY VERBS	Drink	Eat	Play	Rain	Read	Work	Write
A. Participants	two	two	one	one	one(?)	one	two
B. Kinesis	action	action	action	action(?)	action	action	action
C. Aspect	telic	telic	telic	telic	telic	telic	telic
D. Punctuality	durative	durative	durative	durative	durative	durative	durative
E. Volitionality	volitional(?)	volitional	volitional	non-volitional	volitional	?	volitional

F. Affirmation	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	?	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative
G. Mode	realis	realis	realis	realis	realis	realis	realis
H. Agency	low	low(?)	low	low	low	low	low
Points	6	6	5	2	5	4	6

(C-1) You should drink plenty of water. (*LDOCE*: 517)

(C-2) Karen began playing basketball when she was six. (*ibid.*: 1324)

(C-3) It's still raining. (Leech: 23)

(C-4) I was shocked when I read of his death. (*LDOCE*: 1444)

(C-5) You don't need to understand how computers work to be able to use them. (*ibid.*: 1915)

(C-6) I'm writing a letter. (Leech: 23)

D. PROCESS VERBS	**Change**	**Grow**	**Mature**	**Slowdown**	**Widen**	**Deteriorate**
A. Participants	two	one	two	one	two	one
B. Kinesis	action	action	action	action	action	action
C. Aspect	telic	telic	telic	telic	telic	telic(?)
D. Punctuality	durative	durative	durative	durative	durative	durative
E. Volitionality	volitional	non-volitional	non-volitional	non-volitional(?)	volitional	non-volitional(?)
F. Affirmation	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	negative
G. Mode	realis	realis	realis	realis	realis	realis
H. Agency	low(?)	low	low	low	high(?)	high(?)
Points	6	4	5	4	6	1

(D-1) Mueller changed his name to Miller when he became a U.S. citizen. (*LDOCE*: 265)

(D-2) Support for Mr. Thompson is growing. (*ibid.*: 775)

(D-3) His hard life abroad matured his character. (*Genius Unabridged*)

(D-4) It is important to slow down, rest, and eat sensibly. (*LDOCE*: 1656)

(D-5) They're winding the road. (*ibid.*: 2004)

(D-6) The argument deteriorated into a fight. (*ibid.*: 461)

E. INERT PERCEPTION	Feel	Hear	See	Smell	Taste
I. Participants	two	one	two	one	two
J. Kinesis	non-action	non-action	non-action	non-action	non-action
K. Aspect	?	?	?	?	?
L. Punctuality	?	?	?	?	?
M. Volitionality	non-volitional	non-volitional	non-volitional	non-volitional	non-volitional
N. Affirmation	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative
O. Mode	realis	realis	realis	realis	realis
P. Agency	low	low	low	low	low
Points	3	3	3	3	3

(E-1) I could feel something hard under my foot. (Leech: 24)

(E-2) I could hear a knocking at the door. (*ibid*: 24)

(E-3) I could see someone through the window. (*ibid*: 24)

(E-4) I could smell onions cooking. (*ibid*: 25)

(E-5) I could taste sugar in the tea. (*ibid*: 25)

F. INERT COGNITION	Believe	Forget	Hope	Imagine	Know	Suppose	Understand
A. Participants	two	two	two	two	two	two	two
B. Kinesis	non-action	non-action	non-action	non-action	non-action	non-action	non-action
C. Aspect	?	?	?	?	?	?	?
D. Punctuality	?	?	?	?	?	?	?
E. Volitionality	non-volitional	non-volitional	non-volitional	non-volitional	non-volitional	non-volitional	non-volitional
F. Affirmation	affirmative	negative	affirmative	affirmative (?)	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative
G. Mode	realis	realis	realis	realis	realis	realis	realis
H. Agency	low	low	low	low	low	low	low
Points	3	2	3	2	3	3	3

(F-1) You shouldn't believe everything you read. (*LDOCE*: 139)

(F-2) I forget what I paid for the house. (Leech: 25)

(F-3) We were hoping for good weather. (*LDOCE*: 847)

(F-4) He imagines everything to be easy. (Leech: 25)

(F-5) John knows he is talking nonsense. (Leech: 26)

(F-6) I suppose you're right. (*LDOCE*: 1773)

(F-7) We understand your difficulty. (Leech: 25)

G. STATE VERBS OF HAVING AND BEING	Belong to	Contain	Consist of	Cost
A. Participants	two	two	two	two
B. Kinesis	non-action	action(?)	non-action	non-action
C. Aspect	?	?	?	?

D. Punctuality	?	?	?	?
E. Volitionality	non-volitional(?)	non-volitional(?)	non-volitional	non-volitional
F. Affirmation	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative
G. Mode	realis	realis	realis	realis
H. Agency	low	low	low	low
Points	3	3	3	3

(G-1) This carpet belongs to me. (Leech: 26)

(G-2) This bread contains too much yeast. (*ibid*: 26)

(G-3) The buffet consisted of several different Indian dishes. (*LDOCE*: 358)

(G-4) Apples cost a lot at this time of year. (Leech: 26)

G.STATE VERBS OF HAVING AND BEING	Deserve	Have	Matter	Own	Resemble
A. Participants	two	two	one	two	two
B. Kinesis	non-action	non-action	non-action	non-action	non-action
C. Aspect	?	?	?	?	?
D. Punctuality	?	?	?	?	?
E. Volitionality	non-volitional	non-volitional	non-volitional	volitional(?)	non-volitional
F. Affirmation	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative
G. Mode	realis	realis	realis	realis	realis
H. Agency	low	low	low	low	low
Points	3	3	2	3	3

(G-5) What have I done to deserve this? (*LDOCE*: 457)

(G-6) She has several sisters. / I have a bad backache. (Leech: 26)

(G-7) Your age doesn't matter. (*ibid*: 26)

(G-8) You need to get permission from the farmer who owns the land. (*LDOCE*: 1250)

(G-9) It's amazing how closely Brian and Steve resemble each other. (*ibid.*: 1484)

H. VERBS OF BODILY SENSATION	**Ache**	**Feel**	**Hurt**	**Itch**	**Tingle**
A. Participants	one	one	one	one	two
B. Kinesis	non-action	non-action	non-action	non-action	non-action
C. Aspect	telic	telic	telic	telic	telic
D. Punctuality	punctual	punctual	punctual	punctual	punctual
E. Volitionality	non-volitional	non-volitional	non-volitional	non-volitional	non-volitional
F. Affirmation	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative	affirmative
G. Mode	realis	realis	realis	realis	realis
H. Agency	low	low	low	low	low
Points	4	4	4	4	4

(H-1) His feet were aching from standing so long. (*LDOCE*: 13)

(H-2) I feel hungry. (Leech: 26)

(H-3) My knee hurts. (*ibid*: 26)

(H-4) My feet were itching terribly. (*LDOCE*: 935)

(H-5) She tingled with excitement. (*ibid.*: 1853)

In Leech's classification, from A. MOMENTARY VERBS to D.PROCESS VERBS,

the average points in the degree of 'transitivity' are high and their average points are almost more than five points. On average, verbs of 'classification A' have 6.5 points, verbs of 'classification B' have 4.9 points, verbs of 'classification C' have 5.9 points, and verbs of 'classification D' have 5.3 points. On the other hand, from E.INERT PERCEPTION VERBS to H.VERBS OF BODILY SENSATION, the average points in the degree of 'transitivity' are low and their average points are less than four points. On average, verbs of 'classification E' have 3 points, verbs of 'classification F' have 2.7 points, verbs of 'classification G' have 2.9 points, and verbs of 'classification H' have 4 points.

Group Ⅰ (From verbs of 'classification A' to verbs of 'classification D')

Group Ⅱ (From verbs of 'classification E' to verbs of 'classification H')

We call verbs of 'classification from A to D' Group Ⅰ and verbs of 'classification E to H' Group Ⅱ. This is because there is a difference between Group Ⅰ and Group Ⅱ, concerning the degree of 'transitivity', and Group Ⅰ is higher than Group Ⅱ in the degree of 'transitivity'.

Why is there a difference between Group Ⅰ and Group Ⅱ? We can realize the reason by comparing Leech's classification with Dixon's one. In the verbs of Leech's 'classification A', there are many verbs of the AFFECT-type as counterparts of Dixon's classification. In the verbs of Leech's 'classification from B to D', there are several verbs of the MOTION-type, REST-type, and CORPOREAL-type as counterparts of Dixon's classification. These types in Dixon's classification are categorized as the 'Primary-A verb types' and the 'Primary-A verb types' are of high degrees of 'transitivity'.

In contrast, what feature does verbs of 'classification from E to H' in Leech's

classification have? Concerning verbs of 'classification E', there are many verbs of the ATTENTION-type, and regarding verbs of 'classification F", there are many verbs of the THINKING-type, as counterparts of Dixon's classification. In Dixon's classification, verbs of the ATTENTION-type and the THINKING-type are categorized as the 'Primary-B verb types'. Verbs of the 'Primary-B verb types' are, in general, of a lower degree of 'transitivity'. Of course, the way of classification differs from linguist to linguist (in this case, Dixon's classification and Leech's), but the verbal tendency to be categorized looks similar in both cases.

As a result, there is a difference between verbs of Group Ⅰ and Group Ⅱ in Leech's classification. Verbs of Group Ⅰ mostly correspond to verbs of 'Primary-A verb types' and Group Ⅱ mostly corresponds to verbs of 'Primary-B verb type' in Dixon's classification.

Appendix to Chapter 4

Concerning the form of 'intransitive verb + preposition', the results of BNC corpus are given below:

[(aux.) or (to) be looked on: 22]

1. The Brownings and Ferdinando would be back in June so it would be best to go at_once , when it would be more likely that her absence would **be looked on** leniently ADS (文番号:1012)

2. but it would **be looked on** and smiled over and would bring back happy memories and it was all she could think of to signify her reborn affection . ADS (文番号:1706)

3. that applications for extended unpaid leave &bquo; will **be looked on** favourably &equo AJ2 (文番号:20)

4. The very word &bquo; teaching &equo; came to **be looked on** with disfavor ASY (文番号:91)

5. The tale of how an astute Cornish furze-cutter came to be founder of one of the great landed families of Cornwall , with one of the County 's most famed stately homes , could **be looked on** as an ideal example of Thatcherite-style enterprise and self-help . B0G (文番号:260)

6. This history should **be looked on** as my attempt to explore the history of the College so as best to understand why it has become what it is today . B2W （文番号:26）

7. Raitt and Jimmie Vaughan , for so long representatives of the new American blues generation , will themselves **be looked on** as the elders of the blues . C9K （文番号:1809）

8. I 'd like to **be looked on** as a composer rather_than a stick player . C9K （文番号:2172）

9. In an important sense , Hugh may almost **be looked on** as the instigator of the Investiture decree of 1078 , for he had gone to Rome for his episcopal consecration four years earlier in_order to avoid contact with a secular ruler , who claimed the right both to nominate and to invest his nominee in his episcopal office . CKR （文番号:496）

10. He and Philip Burton conducted what could **be looked on** as some kind of elaborate courtship ritual which would result in his hurtling on_to a world stage . CL2 （文番号:760）

11. The absence of CD4 binding by the MicroGeneSys gp160 vaccine may therefore **be looked on** as an added safety feature . EAK （文番号:1081）

12. The naive inductivist account of science , which I will outline in the following sections , can **be looked on** as an attempt to formalize this popular picture of science . FBE （文番号:20）

13. that a murder has taken place and in consequence the story you are telling must **be looked on** as being of some weight , and that nothing has happened to arouse any revulsion in your readers . FF0 (文番号:1017)

14. but it can also **be looked on** as a way of extending the vocabulary of the learner . FNR (文番号:3083)

15. I do n't believe that any obstruction on your behalf at this stage will **be looked on** kindly . &equo; &bquo; Let me put it another way . G0E (文番号:428)

16. If we 're not careful , we will always **be looked on** as yesterday 's men . &equo; He stood up , aware of them all watching him . G0L (文番号:561)

17. he had come to **be looked on** as port representative for foreign ships passing through the Magellan Strait , a sort of consul . GV6 (文番号:2712)

18. For Davidson , the cost in_terms_of senior management time has to **be looked on** as &bquo; an investment : you ca n't afford to spend less time on it . HC1 (文番号:567)

19. It can **be looked on** as a discussion document and its coincidence with the real world is verified in discussions with the various users . HRK (文番号:637)

20. For this reason , it should not **be looked on** as an end user language . HRK (文番号:1425)

21. but the developers argue that it should **be looked on** with pride as a source of non-polluting energy . J2U (文番号:325)

22. If I make a few constructive points , it will **be looked on** as a Liverpudlian poking his nose in . K97 (文番号:15072)

[is looked on: 5]

1. I think it **is looked on** as a sort of disability &equo; . A4K (文番号:544)

2. but now it **is looked on** as a desperate move , a last ditch attempt to gain attention . A6A (文番号:1121)

3. a work many would gladly undertake , for tobacco **is looked on** in the Highlands as a very great good , almost as essential as the whiskey . B1N (文番号:1088)

4. the fat toddler **is no_longer looked on** with affection , but some cultural minority groups still feel that the young child should be fed and pampered . CGT (文番号:1510)

5. this restriction **is no_longer looked on** as so important . K93 (文番号:884)

[are looked on: 7]

1. but not the one buried in a torrent of new laws introduced this year . Short- hold and

assured tenancies aimed at enticing owners to let empty homes **are looked on** with suspicion and disdain . AAX (文番号:169)

2. Patsy Poppleton , who is engaged in research at the Pain Relief Clinic at Abingdon Hospital , resents the fact that research nurses **are often looked on** as &bquo; slaves and handmaidens to doctors &equo; . B7G (文番号:472)

3. British Ministers **are looked on** as grubby messengers with grubby messages . HHV (文番号:4871)

4. " Meanings " are neither equated with speakers ' intentions , nor with recipients ' interpretations ; both **are looked on** as mental entities which are of little interest as_long_as they do not " materialize " in interaction . HXY (文番号:1408)

5. Because wives **are looked on** a surrogates for their husbands while the latter are at Westminster , their attitudes to constituency work and their appearance are considered important . J57 (文番号:1488)

6. You ca n't get away_from the fact that women vets **are n't looked on** kindly by farmers . JYE (文番号:3171)

7. Education leader in swipe at politicians TEACHERS of young children **are being looked on** by the Government as &bquo; K35 (文番号:310)

[was looked on: 9]

1. In the medical climate of the 1920s , when the possibility of chemotherapy **was looked on** so unfavourably , mycobacteria were among the least promising organisms to choose for such treatment . ARF （文番号:536）

2. Thus it **was looked on** as &bquo; the all important matter &equo; . B1T （文番号:167）

3. It **was looked on** as a very serious offence . B24 （文番号:403）

4. It **was looked on** as not advisable to deal with it under the Liverpool Corporation Act . B24 （文番号:1770）

5. He began to oppose federation , and his paper **was looked on** favourably by African nationalists . CDU （文番号:272）

6. Yet right up_until the Second World War , I suspect , Pau **was looked on** by a certain kind of English middle-class family as a safe and congenial southern town to which one might retire , or where , if need arose , the socially disgraced might comfortably hide . FA2 （文番号:751）

7. In_particular the whole idea of a Prime Minister **was looked on** with the gravest suspicion . Walpole , who has been traditionally and perhaps wrongly regarded as the first British Prime Minister , always took pains to deny that he occupied such a position . H8C （文番号:192）

8. You 've got to remember that at the time , deregulation **was looked on** as an open cash-register . HWL （文番号:1451）

9. Ice-cream **was looked on** mainly as a cheap , default dessert appealing to a cost-conscious market . K5H （文番号:3787）

[were looked on: 1]

1. these educated people **were not looked on** with favour , for they were able to see through Coleman 's &bquo; shallow and fatuous system &equo; . B2W （文番号:959）

[(aux.) or (to) be looked at: 236]

1. Not an object to **be looked at** and admired . A08 （文番号:1248）

2. These matters will **be looked at** before a firm decision is taken . A3K （文番号:36）

3. In_order to make some local comparisons with Nikol'skaia , ties between the fifty-nine party cells and the people in Poltava guberniia will **be looked at** in passing . A64 （文番号:508）

4. The special case of a disseminated labour force , the railway and other communications workers , will **be looked at** for 1922 . A64 （文番号:831）

5. Lenin 's attitude , in_so_far_as it is discernible , will **be looked at** in a moment , but by

this time he was more cut off through illness from daily supervision of affairs . A64 (文番号:1364)

6. But we want swimming pools to **be looked at** specifically , rather_than as just part of the hotel as a whole . &equo; A7F (文番号:287)

7. This is a technology , &equo; says the UK Genetics Forum , &bquo; which should **be looked at** from the point of view that if something goes wrong , it ca n't be put right . ACN (文番号:2316)

8. Power has also to **be looked at** in_the_light_of engine capacity and tractor weight . ACR (文番号:3316)

9. and there is no_doubt the press department of Central Office needs to **be looked at** closely . AK9 (文番号:850)

10. At its annual meeting , hastily relocated from the severely damaged Baltic Exchange building , Mr Nicholas Baring , chairman , said in_response_to a question from a shareholder that such a possibility would **be looked at** very carefully . AKL (文番号:4)

11. That needs to **be looked at** . &equo; AKX (文番号:46)

12. Some of these comments related to two very important aspects of the Board 's work and deserved to **be looked at** in a_little more detail . ALC (文番号:1092)

13. The issues must , however , **be looked at** in a broader context . ALF （文番号:238）

14. We are all like pictures that must not **be looked at** too near . &equo; John Howe preached her funeral sermon as she was buried alongside her mother in Christ Church , London on 17th . June . ALK （文番号:697）

15. All of our departments are built round customer needs therefore they need to **be regularly looked at** and updated . AMH （文番号:527）

16. Barth was deeply impressed by Anselm 's so-called &bquo; Ontological Argument &equo; for the existence of God — this argument will **be looked at** in more detail later — but he interpreted it in a particular way . AMT （文番号:44）

17. It must **be looked at** as a grand community of integrated environment . APX （文番号:572）

18. For this the sore is gently scraped and any fluid that exudes can then **be looked at** under the microscope . ARH （文番号:1666）

19. Remember that afterwards you may be making an offer , so a more careful visual inspection must be made at this stage , and the matters only briefly considered on your first visit should **be looked at** in more depth now . AS1 （文番号:381）

20. The advice concludes , however , with the observation that &bquo; this situation should **be looked at** sensibly and the prohibition outlined above must not be allowed to

jeopardise the patient 's health . ASK （文番号:1578）

21. People prefer to **be looked at** while you are talking . AYJ （文番号:2714）

22. so notwithstanding what might otherwise be a desirable policy of providing career opportunities , this issue needs to **be looked at** closely . B0M （文番号:1962）

23. These questions could **be looked at** within small groups of students . B17 （文番号:148）

24. Thus , as with biological theories , crime is seen as pathological (a disease) , as something to **be looked at** from the medical point of view . B17 （文番号:222）

25. I wonder why people hung this sort of thing on the wall to **be looked at** day after day . B22 （文番号:1021）

26. Localized variations in voting patterns may reflect changing forms of political alignment and voting behaviour (see Johnston , Pattie and Allsopp (1988) for a review) , and electoral politics will **be looked at** in the next chapter , but here I shall consider the notion of political culture more widely . B2L （文番号:727）

27. Whether they come for the day , weekend or week they leave whatever troubles they have at home and come to lie , look and **be looked at** . B3K （文番号:899）

28. To return to the example , if the machine finds that one particular reply to A is

especially strong (leads to an unusually large change in score) , it remembers that fact , and puts that reply high in the list of plays to **be looked at** when B and C are examined . B7D （文番号:1190）

29. The American meteorological craft can not **be looked at** in isolation : they depend not only on Earth stations but also on processing equipment on the ground that makes sense of the data that the craft provide . B7L （文番号:21）

30. They have been there over years and many of the established patterns of reaction are demanding to **be looked at** . BLW （文番号:301）

31. This evidence , which will **be looked at** in the next section , is an indication that a direct link between allergy and mental problems is not impossible . BM1 （文番号:39）

32. Remember that anything that claims to work by_means_of spiritual powers needs to **be looked at** carefully . C8N （文番号:926）

33. All gas and electrical equipment and appliances , wiring , lamp holders , power points and plugs , and particularly electric blankets should be checked for safety and efficiency , and taps , pipes and tanks should **be looked at** also to see if they are in_need_of attention . C8Y （文番号:605）

34. When you look at it next time , solutions may suggest themselves , and it can **be looked at** more objectively . C9R （文番号:1802）

35. Lesbian and gay sex porn demands to **be looked at** differently . C9S （文番号:1632）

36. In_the_light_of the inquiry into the Orkney affair , it is likely that these submissions will have to **be looked at** again , and new laws drafted . CAR （文番号:1743）

37. With the speed of integration of JAA and the Single European Market this issue can not **be looked at** in isolation from the overall harmonisation requirements which will influence the CAA 's regulatory system . CAU （文番号:33）

38. The Managers ' Association have written to the FA suggesting this is an area that needs to **be looked at** for the good of football . CBG （文番号:5941）

39. The ASB proposals seem to imply that card portfolios should not **be looked at** on a portfolio basis and that the laws of large numbers do not apply . CBT （文番号:2721）

40. He has experimented successfully himself with low price hardbacks , but stresses that price can not **be looked at** in isolation . CBX （文番号:1044）

41. This situation needs to **be looked at** very carefully . CBX （文番号:3118）

42. The EAT said that where there were sound business reasons for reorganisation , then the question of reasonableness had to **be looked at** in the context of a reorganisation and not solely in the context of the offer of new terms and conditions . CBY （文番号:4015）

43. Nevertheless , Sir , there are some things more fit to **be looked at** than others ; for_instance , there is nothing more fit to be looked at than the outside_of a book …CCB （文番号:141）

44. Nevertheless , Sir , there are some things more fit to be looked at than others ; for_instance , there is nothing more fit to **be looked at** than the outside_of a book …CCB （文番号:141）

45. However , I think it can **be looked at** in another , much simpler way . CCN （文番号:702）

46. However , this issue can **be looked at** positively : perhaps someone may do something about their abuse as a result of Mr Rose 's coming forward — telling someone is one of the hardest things a victim can do . CD5 （文番号:59）

47. A capital injection from the company 's bank has to **be looked at** as a probable source of additional finance , although this would mean a secured loan . CDP （文番号:1735）

48. If the mother 's face is unresponsive , then the mirror is a thing to **be looked at** but not looked into . &equo; CEE （文番号:211）

49. The competition will **be looked at** at the end of the season . CEP （文番号:9691）

50. A meeting of university presidents was taking place in Beijing , prompted by student

unrest in June (which will **be looked at** in the next chapter) , and they were considering the effects that &bquo; Heshang &equo; might have . CG0 （文番号:1269）

51. The whole structure of the season , plus the situation with World Cup and European Championship games , has got to **be looked at** because at the moment we just seem to penalise successful teams . CH3 （文番号:2199）

52. The rules are not going to change overnight , but they must **be looked at** — I think they 're silly . CH7 （文番号:418）

53. I 'm worried that the whole scene will **be looked at** as women who are abused screaming at patriarchy , as_if the uniting force is that they 're victims . CHA （文番号:1132）

54. It 's a serious problem which has to **be looked at** on two levels . CHH （文番号:747）

55. Certainly various options in providing funds will have to **be looked at** , and some agreement reached if mandatory refreshment is to become a reality . CHT （文番号:756）

56. With all these aircraft begging to **be looked at** , one would think that it would be impossible to attempt to see everything that Oshkosh has to offer , not so ! CLV （文番号:874）

57. These issues will **be looked at** in more detail below . CLW （文番号:1029）

58. However , the question of equity and the marketability of equity is a contentious problem and can **be looked at** in two ways , from the perspective of the international firm and also the national one . CM0 （文番号:970）

59. Lilley said they had no plans to do so at_present , but everything would **be looked at** in the review . CR5 （文番号:437）

60. I can assure you as Chairman of the trust what you said and the question 's you 've raised this evening will **be looked at** in great detail and we will be reporting back to you in the near future about the proposals that we wish to make . D92 （文番号:19）

61. Cost-benefit for performing cardiac transplantation on such seriously ill patients may **be looked at** more objectively when follow_up is longer . EA0 （文番号:557）

62. The point is that some things in health services ca n't easily **be looked at** with quantitative methods alone . EC7 （文番号:1093）

63. This , however , must **be looked at** with_regard_to aspects of employment law . EC7 （文番号:1935）

64. A screen , on the other hand , not only has a specific function , but is also an integral part of the overall design , and will therefore **be looked at** in quite a different way . ED9 （文番号:3228）

65. The period between arrest and trial for serious offences must be shortened and the question of bail should **be looked at** . EEC （文番号:1536）

66. In Vietnam , they were probably pre-eminent and could certainly lay the largest claim to &bquo; control &equo; of operational areas on the other side of the Chinese frontier in Tonkin even_though their simultaneous claim to the status of &bquo; resistance &equo; forces needs to **be looked at** more closely . EFA （文番号:218）

67. People have n't looked at the directors of certain charitable organisations ; well , it has to **be looked at** . EFD （文番号:232）

68. Another said that the location of industry and Government Training Centres had to **be looked at** in_terms_of equal opportunity and access . EFD （文番号:1378）

69. However , there is one further category of evidence to **be looked at** — the larvae . The segmented worms have spherical larvae with a belt of cilia round their middles and a long tuft on top . EFR （文番号:602）

70. The reading of the children who made those errors would **be looked at** carefully . EVB （文番号:677）

71. The first reaction to this is that the speller needs to **be looked at** more closely : the inversion of letters here , and the production of a completely un-English-looking word , suggests that the child has considerable difficulty with visualisation , and possibly has trouble reading , too . EVB （文番号:696）

72. The fragmentation of the trade — the implications of which were only dimly perceived at the time — was to become of crucial importance later and will **be looked at** in more detail below . EVJ （文番号:181）

73. He argued that the incident must **be looked at** , not through the eyes of the reviewing court , but through the eyes of a reasonable man . EVK （文番号:1901）

74. Before examining these in detail , there is one fundamental consideration to **be looked at** which will have a bearing on all managerial activity ; management style and attitudes . EVY （文番号:43）

75. However , the question of the value of the product should **be looked at** in some detail . EX6 （文番号:1272）

76. I would like to have my work published but I also like to perform it and its got to be attractive to **be looked at** , in the first instance in , on a page its not known F71 （文番号:108）

77. it seems that different products tend to **be best looked at** in_terms_of rather different life style groupings , so_that , ideally , each requires its own major survey — which rather loses the point of the exercise — and researchers have had some difficulty in replicating the results . F9D （文番号:507）

78. Their stance is typified by one young officer 's remark , when faced with a

recalcitrant discharger , that &bquo; all cases should **be looked at** as potential prosecutions &equo; . FA1 （文番号:631）

79. This destructive behaviour needs to **be looked at** . FAB （文番号:3924）

80. They tended to face north and west when they should have faced south and east , because they were there to **be looked at** , not to be looked from , and the windows of the mansion faced in the contrary direction . FAE （文番号:983）

81. In these circumstances , the evidence of the first defendant , Mr. Morgan and Miss Calagarri of testamentary capacity required to **be looked at** with special care and caution . FD2 （文番号:259）

82. This rule has now been relaxed so_as to permit reports of commissioners , including law commissioners , and white papers to **be looked at** for the purpose solely of ascertaining the mischief which the statute is intended to cure but not for the purpose of discovering the meaning of the words used by Parliament to effect such cure FE1 （文番号:459）

83. the practical difficulty of the expense of researching Parliamentary material which would arise if the material could **be looked at** ; third , the need for the citizen to have access to a known defined text which regulates his legal rights ; fourth , the improbability of finding helpful guidance from Hansard . FE1 （文番号:495）

84. To the extent that he went further so_as to suggest that in no circumstances could

the speeches **be looked at** other_than for the purposes of seeing what was said on a particular date , his remarks have to be understood in the context of the issues which arose in that case . FE1 （文番号:611）

85. It 's a good rule , but I think it needs to **be looked at** a_little more closely . FF0 （文番号:459）

86. I I think erm , that it can **be looked at** to , without H R T or looking at it medically , because lots of the women at Dean Terrace , in fact have FL4 （文番号:241）

87. Yes its them that should actually **be looked at** as_opposed_to the , to the vehicle 's themselves . FLA （文番号:121）

88. I think there 's a big problem in that area and that it should **be looked at** for small people driving cars . FLA （文番号:125）

89. I think that issue has to **be looked at** as_well . FLE （文番号:186）

90. you know chauvinists is everything , and he 's got a really bad name to him , so I think it 's got to **be looked at** from both sides . FLK （文番号:307）

91. It is submitted that the whole of Skelton Village should **be looked at** as a unity , that there is extreme environmental value over its north part , and that were the village inset into the greenbelt , the inset boundary should be precisely as shown in the deposit copy of Southern Ryedale 's Local Plan . FMN （文番号:296）

92. That it is not so here is perhaps because the charioteer was not designed to **be looked at** on its own but as part of a larger whole . FPW （文番号:747）

93. Can the reports of these commissions and committees **be looked at** as an aid to construction ? FRA （文番号:66）

94. and in this event the problem must **be looked at** from the point of view of general legal principle or public policy to decide whether it should be brought under the one head or the other . FRA （文番号:408）

95. Much of this is welcome but it has to **be looked at** critically when public expenditure cuts dominate the policy discussions . FS6 （文番号:628）

96. I think that 's needs to **be looked at** . FY8 （文番号:509）

97. But certainly I think erm with young and with the unemployed , that really is is quite a high priority to **be looked at** . FY8 （文番号:516）

98. And I think erm as_for you know , what we as a sho society should be doing , erm you know that 's the whole economic policy , erm would really have to **be looked at** . FY8 （文番号:698）

99. In total contrast to the problems facing speech recognition , which will **be looked at** in a moment , the task of electronically generating speech has pretty much been

mastered . G00 （文番号:4247）

100. The claims of the environmentalists had to **be looked at** again . G05 （文番号:242）

101. Abercrombie 's Greater London Plan had now to **be looked at** in rather a different light . G05 （文番号:1263）

102. Whilst the cost of unemployment in_terms_of human misery and risk of social unrest must be considerable , the attempt to seek a remedy must not **be looked at** as merely a social gesture . G0C （文番号:489）

103. Rather it would be best to take the most extreme cases as a basis for new thinking so that intermediate requirements can **be looked at** in perspective . G0K （文番号:167）

104. With the increasing sophistication and scale of warehouse buildings it is suggested that they should **be looked at** in depth at the earliest planning stage when they are able to exert their proper influence on construction and design . G0K （文番号:267）

105. She would have liked to dissolve into him and become part of him , so_that she could never be subject_to his indifference , or even **be looked at** by him in any objective way . G12 （文番号:1553）

106. In raising questions about curriculum content and balance , therefore , the balance and disposition of these generic activities must **be looked at** as searchingly as the balance of subject time . G1F （文番号:267）

107. However , the situation in Leeds needs to **be looked at** in a national as_well_as in a local context . G1F （文番号:1456）

108. Later this third person acquires a proper name , figure of this paradox , one out_of zero , name out_of anonymity , visualisation of the fantasy into a signifier that can **be looked at** , seen . G1N （文番号:1214）

109. Strictly speaking not all of the measures within these areas fall within the 1992 programme but given their inter-relationship they need to **be looked at** together . G2P （文番号:64）

110. What has been overlooked in this debate is that , whilst Gilbert & George or Howard Hodgkin won the prize in the past , neither Bridget Riley or Gillian Ayres for_example , will **be looked at** now as potential winners . G34 （文番号:79）

111. However such applications must **be looked at** carefully bearing in mind the whole environmental question . G3H （文番号:46）

112. She used to toss her head as she passed me , as_if I was something nasty on the roadside that should n't **be looked at** . G3P （文番号:1186）

113. And they will actually **be looked at** quite closely will individual products . G3U （文番号:612）

114. Budgets are a particularly useful vehicle for the expression of quantifiable results , and will **be looked at** more closely later in the chapter . GUY （文番号:557）

115. Each of these methods will **be looked at** shortly . GUY （文番号:1667）

116. Each of these will **be looked at** briefly in this chapter , which will also examine some of the leading public and private pressure groups which help ordinary citizens to obtain redress against unfair trading in goods and services . GUY （文番号:2467）

117. Costs have to **be looked at** in two respects , first , the costs which may be ordered to be paid by one of the parties to the other in litigation , and , secondly , the costs which a client is obliged to pay the solicitor . GVH （文番号:878）

118. That the subject **be looked at** in the round be taken up . GVH （文番号:1046）

119. Even the oilfields which have been discovered and appraised need to **be looked at** again to determine whether they are still profitable at low oil prices . GX7 （文番号:118）

120. In_case building increases and further developments are needed , the feasibility of new settlements near_to Kirknewton , Winchburgh and Longniddry will **be looked at** , but no decisions will be taken about these until detailed studies are completed . GXJ （文番号:921）

121. Palaces are designed by architects to **be looked at** rather_than lived in . H0E （文番号:247）

122. This may **be looked at** from two points of view : H0Y （文番号:2925）

123. This distinction between the roles in a drama and the actors who play the roles corresponds to the fact that the data of field research must always **be looked at** in two dimensions . H10 （文番号:870）

124. Nevertheless the degree to which custom , as directly observed , conforms or does not conform to a predetermined stereotype needs to **be looked at** very carefully . H10 （文番号:1709）

125. A lady arrives at the front counter with something to **be looked at** . H45 （文番号:358）

126. The main priorities for community and economic development in the inner Bristol waterside area must first **be looked at** when deciding how to improve the area . H8W (文番号:418)

127. Each case must **be looked at** and dealt with on its own merits considering the circumstances and amounts involved . HB3 (文番号:1077)

128. The Policyholder 's Doctor may indicate how long he expects his patient to be absent from work but normally every claim will have to **be looked at** individually and an appropriate estimate advised to I.S. HB3 (文番号:1423)

129. The first two processes to **be looked at** are Flask Handling from pond to railhead , and the training process . HBK (文番号:420)

130. There was a feeling that the wider issues needed to **be looked at** in a national forum . HBM (文番号:1196)

131. I feel that any threatened site , be it on land or not , should **be looked at** in the same way : that_is , will excavating this site advance our knowledge of history in a significant way ? HCN (文番号:126)

132. The issue of equality had to **be looked at** very closely and we had already had detailed discussions with I.C.T.U. on equality . HCW (文番号:11)

133. but I mean that 's all to **be looked at** . HEE (文番号:113)

134. They are not to **be looked at** in isolation and followed to the letter , but if you 're not sure about style , they will give you some useful ideas . HGW (文番号:1337)

135. Should not the more important issue of the large salaries being paid to these local authority members **be looked at** ? HHW (文番号:14240)

136. This is a matter of major constitutional importance which will have to **be looked at** by the House of Lords and no_doubt considered by this place in due course . HHX (文番号:1044)

137. Among the factors to **be looked at** will be their early careers , family background , educational achievement , attitudes to education , training , employment , unemployment , economic policies and political issues . HHY (文番号:6585)

138. In_particular , the mechanisms of landlord-influence in rural and urban communities will **be looked at** in some detail with_a_view_to explaining the variable incidence of the &bquo; deferential &equo; and &bquo; participatory &equo; types of voting identified by previous research . HJ0 (文番号:1626)

139. Selected episodes in other countries will **be looked at** where relevant . HJ0 (文番号:13452)

140. The focus will be upon the routine ways in which the majority of complaints are dealt with inside these organizations , although more formal procedures will also **be looked at** . HJ1 (文番号:22930)

141. but this obviously needs to **be looked at** in each case in_the_light_of particular facts , warranties , assets and liabilities . HJ5 (文番号:3079)

142. It was agreed that the procedures for data entry would **be looked at** over the next few months , and further discussions would be held in due course . HJA (文番号:1650)

143. Areas to **be looked at** in the short term are : HJA (文番号:3774)

144. The female form is a thing of beauty and ought to **be looked at** . HJC (文番号:2476)

145. In considering what would amount to undue hardship , the nature and cost of the accommodation should **be looked at** . HP3 (文番号:136)

146. The means to enforce the non-discrimination principle need to **be looked at** afresh , although this is not a question unique to disability discrimination . HP3 (文番号:179)

147. However , it is in the various statements indicating the extent to which managerial prerogative is constrained in this context that differences of emphasis have emerged relating to what should **be looked at** in the assessment of the employer 's reasonableness in dismissing &bquo; refuseniks &equo; HP3 (文番号:722)

148. Maitland to be asked to circulate a copy of the draft Minute of Agreement to Christian Aid and SCIAF before the next meeting so_that this can **be looked at** . HPH (文番号:1067)

149. These Viking activities and Frankish responses to them will **be looked at** later in this book . HPT (文番号:463)

150. This will **be looked at** in Chapter 7 where a number of commercial DBMS are investigated . HRK (文番号:1259)

151. Accounts as a whole will now **be looked at** and how to extract the most useful information for assessing performance and financial position will be considered . HSE (文番号:256)

152. as Amiss saw with fascination , his first act on sitting down to breakfast was to open the tabloid at page three , fold it and prop it against the sugar bowl in such a way that the topless pin-up of the day was there to **be looked at** every time he got bored with the Telegraph . HTG (文番号:302)

153. but it should also **be looked at** in the context of the budget for 1991–92 which had predicted a loss of £117,000 . HU5 (文番号:169)

154. So I think it it is an issue that perhaps has n't been addressed in our discussions erm hitherto and and and seems to me from from past evidence to sugg to be an issue that does need to be to **be looked at** . HVG (文番号:418)

155. I think this is an extremely complicated er issue but I think it 's on that needs to **be looked at** consistently across North Yorkshire . HVH (文番号:1046)

156. And because this issue is clearly so site related , it seems to me it can not possibly **be looked at** at a strategic level . HVH (文番号:1243)

157. But in fact it could **be looked at** in_the_light_of criterion nine , which is free standing , well removed etcetera HVH (文番号:1303)

158. I 'm now just got their comments now , and it may be helpful if I enclose a copy to er whoever may may wish to have a copy to **be looked at** over the weekend . HVH (文番号:1340)

159. and it would be statutory if the County Council and ninety five percent of the district support on sites would be a tight greenbelt so the options would **be looked at** erm er in that context HVJ (文番号:120)

160. if the City of York itself can not accommodate the requirement generated from in that city , then it must **be looked at** HVJ (文番号:137)

161. I would expect the County Council would not wish to pursue either report er until er the other er is available , and that seems to the County Council to be entirely sensible , that the two reports , the structure plan alteration and the greenbelt local plan enquiry , erm should **be looked at** together . HVJ (文番号:557)

162. To determine whether there has been an infringement , the specification and , in_particular , the claims for the patent must **be looked at** and interpreted to find the limits of the patent . HXD (文番号:732)

163. Although a design can relate to a part of an article , it seems that the whole article must **be looked at** when deciding infringement . HXD (文番号:1008)

164. The basic thrust of it is that it should **be looked at** only exceptionally : Lloyd . HXE (文番号:157)

165. The last two verbs to **be looked at** in the field of causality are thank and bid . HXG (文番号:927)

166. The response of the defendants then had to **be looked at** . HXV （文番号:821）

167. The occupier must also **be looked at** . HXV （文番号:1080）

168. The relevant points will **be looked at** in turn . HXV （文番号:1496）

169. Whereas the moon can **be looked at** directly , although its luminosity derives from the sun , the sun itself , if gazed at , blinds man with excess of light . HY6 （文番号:81）

170. How justified such a view is will **be looked at** in Chapter 3 . HYB （文番号:197）

171. I take your point and that will **be looked at** , thank you . HYG （文番号:89）

172. Demanding to **be looked at** . J25 （文番号:357）

173. Newbery argued that a more useful approach was for each country to **be looked at** separately and the level of damage quantified to see how it could be most effectively and economically put right . J2P （文番号:421）

174. The NRA admits that there are no easy solutions to the problem , and says that cases need to **be looked at** individually , but agrees that ways have to be found of reducing phosphate levels in the water . J2P （文番号:527）

175. and it 's one that clearly needs to **be looked at** and , and managed and the care

needs as stated in that management . J3P （文番号:161）

176. that questions the degree of representation of all the different interests needed to **be looked at** , hence the proposal that there should be J3P （文番号:805）

177. Can I ju ju just raise a point where it refers to the fact that the S S A is going to **be looked at** again next year . J3S （文番号:414）

178. But I think it 's also useful for the Committee to intimate comments on , on where it sees areas to **be looked at** , like special service calls , so on and_so_forth . J3S （文番号:422）

179. On leaving the Service in August 1935 he spent several months looking around and also being looked at by the family of the lovely Ly , his Swiss wife , a scrutiny which was reciprocated when Ly had in turn , to **be looked at** by the swarm of Bennetts in Brisbane , Australia . J56 （文番号:814）

180. In an asset sale , the entire transaction , namely the main sale agreement together with all ancillary agreements , must **be looked at** in_the_light_of RTPA 1976 . J6N （文番号:540）

181. No individual provision in an agreement will **be looked at** and construed in isolation from the entire document （ and any documents subsidiary thereto , eg accession agreements , variations of particular clauses etc ） . J6P （文番号:396）

182. The matter may **be looked at** retrospectively （ ie where the partner has been unable

to work for some defined period or periods) or prospectively (where it has become apparent that the partner 's health has failed and will not improve) . J6P (文番号:948)

183. Covenants imposed on employed solicitors will always **be looked at** objectively and the court will presume an inequality of bargaining power . J6P (文番号:1081)

184. In construing the supplemental instrument the whole of the previous instrument may **be looked at** (Plumrose Ltd v Real and Leasehold Estates Investment Society Ltd [1969] 3 All ER 1441) . J6R (文番号:113)

185. Here s 1 , which defines the application of various parts of the UCTA , must **be looked at** . J6T (文番号:125)

186. In these cases the general case law must **be looked at** to decide what warranties are to be implied in this area . J6T (文番号:376)

187. The discharge of the basic obligations under the contract , relating to delivery , passing of risk and property , and payment , are partly a matter for negotiation between the parties (although the SGA provides guidelines) but must also **be looked at** in_relation_to s 3 of the UCTA , with its restrictions on clauses excluding liability for breach . J6T (文番号:666)

188. The test itself has to **be carefully looked at** . J75 (文番号:1473)

189. The arrangement in my view must **be looked at** as a whole J7A (文番号:520)

190. There are a number of provisions to **be looked at** . J7A （文番号:1271）

191. Now if we are going to say that this rolling programme , we we do n't mean this rolling programme because it it 's all going back to committees again to be to **be looked at** then we are putting our at a disadvantage they will disband and the cost to us for refurbishment will increase . J9M （文番号:228）

192. I guess again that 's something that needs to **be looked at** in the context of the er of of British Coal 's ongoing program of work in the Selby Area . J9S （文番号:274）

193. Er but it really needs to **be looked at** er in some detail . J9T （文番号:744）

194. Yes . declared for people who are buying houses and etcetera and it has a certain statutory status but it but it can **be looked at** again clearly . J9U （文番号:377）

195. Some can be quantified in numeric terms and can **be looked at** objectively , others are subjective . J9U （文番号:532）

196. What we have in_terms_of the advice for the open countryside outside the areas that would normally **be looked at** and allocated for development is the rural exceptions policy that forms part of P P G three . J9V （文番号:430）

197. Erm the cost of capital costs of of signing er will also **be looked at** and then a further report from the subcommittee to the council . JA5 （文番号:218）

198. and that and that issues around the should **be looked at** again at the . JJ9 （文番号:303）

199. I think the prospects for ninety-five six will need to **be looked at** through the budget review sub-committee and this committee at an early stage , JJG （文番号:231）

200. No chair , I would very much like it to **be looked at** in great detail by the budget review committee , JJG （文番号:393）

201. Well I I guess the graphics need to **be looked at** in that Mhm . JP0 （文番号:1396）

202. we do actually have a number of waste planning sort of policy panel , er and this is something look , needs to **be looked at** in , in some detail , JS7 （文番号:259）

203. and therefore my understanding is that the officers are going to look at those parts which may **be looked at** as a corporate responsibility , JS9 （文番号:298）

204. I understand there are problems er but as a general principle it does seem to me that it 's something that needs to **be looked at** and the minister has said that a lot of these matters will be dealt with by a statement of practice and er he was asked by the honourable gentleman , JSF （文番号:395）

205. I wonder whether_or_not that 's something that ought to **be looked at** . JSF （文番号:399）

206. I believe that 's something that needs to **be looked at** and if the government were prepared to embark on a review of auditing er generally JSF （文番号:403）

207. I come back to the point that audit ought to **be looked at** as something that assists companies in efficiency as_well_as a mechanism for detecting fraud and yet the government does n't appear to be examining that . JSF （文番号:411）

208. it 's something that the government ought to look at and again it seems to me that it ought to be a matter that er could **be looked at** if there was a proper inquiry . JSF （文番号:413）

209. In all circumstances relating to tax matters it must be appreciated that each set of facts is to **be looked at** separately . JXH （文番号:137）

210. The librarian suggested that tourist information provided on the Prestel might **be usefully looked at** . JXK （文番号:1213）

211. Crime is a big issue not just an issue of sentencing or the courts , but something that must **be looked at** away from politcs . K1K （文番号:1547）

212. The law needs to **be looked at** because glue-sniffing is an appalling addiction . K1N （文番号:1733）

213. For_instance , devolution in health , education and environmental matters should

be looked at . &equo; K2L （文番号:240）

214. It identifies a number of key areas which Prof Friel believes need to **be looked at** including an integrated development plan , improved hotel accommodation , the development of the waterfront , the creation of jobs and a marketing and tourism strategy for the city . K32 （文番号:413）

215. He deserves contempt not respect and his ability to handle further cases as serious as this should **be looked at** by the Lord Chancellor 's office . K55 （文番号:1149）

216. Information on different legal , accountancy and financing standards will **be particularly looked at** . K59 （文番号:541）

217. There are other ways of getting non-controversial private members ' bills through which may **be looked at** , including the Scottish Grand Committee . K5D （文番号:9637）

218. The emergence of three youngsters from Ibrox , Murray , Hagen and Pressley , could **be looked at** as an unusual bonus but that initial impression may not necessarily be the correct one . K5J （文番号:1263）

219. Asked if some younger players would **be looked at** , Fletcher added : &bquo; You have to get a balance between younger players and those with experience , and it 's always hard bringing in youngsters . K5J （文番号:2328）

220. The Touche Ross fees should **be looked at** and the whole local government reform

plans should be abandoned . &equo; K5M （文番号:8446）

221. This is not simply a matter which can **be looked at** and comfortably quantified as a constant problem . K5M （文番号:8601）

222. and , er of_course that the commission looked at this as er , er , as a question to **be looked at** in the context of the market and of all facts , K73 （文番号:309）

223. Well I think er well we 've got ta er I think we 've got ta few points , there 's , there 's one on stock lending which we think needs to **be looked at** . K77 （文番号:203）

224. Any cross-sectional type of analysis can also be made with a longitudinal study but , in_addition , the aggregation of changes in individuals can **be looked at** . K8Y （文番号:1909）

225. Sir , Arising out_of your questionnaire (Transport September — October 1991) it occurred to me that perhaps the CIT logo could **be looked at** with_a_view_to substituting something more modern or vibrant for the horse/steed . K9W （文番号:245）

226. it must **be looked at** like this : KA1 （文番号:1436）

227. Could it **be looked at** ? KB0 （文番号:2227）

228. That 's another thing that should **be looked at** because Yes . KBK （文番号:5785）

229. I mean it 's an issue that needs to **be looked at** anyway is n't it ? KLX （文番号:677）

230. but it 's indicating that there 's something that needs to **be looked at** . KM5 （文番号:778）

231. whether they dig tunnels under the Orwell or knocking down Wordsworth Road I mean it 's all got to **be looked at** . KN3 （文番号:675）

232. So he took it in to **be looked at** . KP4 （文番号:949）

233. As_soon_as the price of oil starts to go up again , then I 'm sure that it would **be looked at** in a far more serious manner . KRF （文番号:397）

234. Next year I 'm working out , or will soon be working out , with the Treasury a further substantial programme of increases and the Thames Valley bid will of_course **be looked at** as part of that programme . KRM （文番号:2279）

235. I am immediately introducing new measures to ensure that all high-risk premises , which include restaurants , will **be looked at** by some health officer every six months . KRP （文番号:688）

236. Conformation is highly inheritable and faults such_as very sloping pasterns and small joints , which increases susceptibility to joint , tendon and ligament injuries , should **be looked at** very critically . KS9 （文番号:183）

[is looked at: 24]

1. For a good reason , but also for a bad one , this latest change in Iran 's persona **is being looked at** seriously . ABK (文番号:226)

2. A picture or two **is looked at** . ARX (文番号:217)

3. Even more insulation is given by looking at all things from the transcendent level , for then each event **is looked at** as_if it is seen through coloured lenses that transfigure it and place it in another dimension and time . B1F (文番号:171)

4. But when the problem **is looked at** from the miners ' point of view a rather different history comes into view . B77 (文番号:667)

5. perhaps because the issue **is looked at** from the wrong perspective . C9A (文番号:1475)

6. Each covenant **is looked at** in_the_light_of the people , the business or the profession and all the circumstances involved . CBW (文番号:3956)

7. The same kind of problem arises if the system **is looked at** from the angle of the natural sciences . CL6 (文番号:555)

8. This helps to reinforce the meaning of the structures students are learning , and ensures that form **is rarely looked at** in isolation . CLL (文番号:1592)

9.What **is being looked at** in all case discussions is a sequence of focal points of which trainee consultants need to be made aware , to be able to highlight the interactional context of the difficulty . CMU (文番号:1167)

10.here the self **is looked at** in the context of the past history of a person ECV (文番号:169)

11. In this chapter , the everyday division of labour at work **is looked at** in some detail , in_order to understand how all the parties involved -employers , men and women — interpreted the questions of skill and pay . EVJ (文番号:408)

12. The role of finds in dating **is looked at** in the next chapter , but perhaps the most obvious way in which finds can tell us about the past is by providing evidence about ancient technology . F9A (文番号:668)

13. I do feel that a car **is looked at** from a performance point of view FLA (文番号:123)

14. But that is perhaps a matter which **is best looked at** er over lunch . FMP (文番号:719)

15. Each application **is looked at** carefully to make sure that those in most need will receive the service . GXJ (文番号:978)

16. and more general staff development material for centres **is being looked at** .

HBM （文番号:2358）

17. but this time only the reference area **is looked at** . HGX （文番号:1391）

18. A case that is considered thoroughly **is looked at** in the round and all the relevant factors are taken into proper consideration . HHW （文番号:8333）

19. Whether it **is just looked at** or heard , acted out or painted , a symbol arouses not only thought but delight , fear , awe , horror and the rest HS7 （文番号:660）

20. Now what we have done **is looked at** s these causeway relief arches which pass the water from one side of the to the other at . J44 （文番号:102）

21. since each single provision **is properly looked at** in the context of the entire document , it is the whole agreement which should then be reconsidered and not simply isolated clauses . J6P （文番号:376）

22. Yes I think it 's fair to say at the moment that , that , that **is being looked at** Mr Trotter JNN （文番号:262）

23. Buyer said although space considerations make this difficult , it **is being looked at** . K99 （文番号:383）

24. I 've got all her details and she **is being looked at** , you know , we are looking into it anyway erm KCP （文番号:6023）

[are looked at: 30]

1. when they **are looked at** only for themselves , gazed at only for themselves . A08 (文番号:1839)

2. Tenders **are looked at** individually and taken on merit . &equo; AJM (文番号:675)

3. Other aspects **are looked at** such_as packaging food and irradiation interactions . ALV (文番号:2155)

4. Living in such a cloistered world such operations **are never looked at** objectively but simply as a means of gaining personal kudos for one small group within an agency . AN0 (文番号:1018)

5. and also know that on certain occasions they **are being looked at** for selection purposes . AR7 (文番号:125)

6. In their traditional exhibitionist role women **are simultaneously looked at** and displayed , with their appearance coded for strong visual and erotic impact so_that they can be said to connote to-be-looked-at-ness . ATA (文番号:1036)

7 . Exam results **are looked at** closely , subject by subject , and comparisons are made with previous years and with neighbouring schools . B23 (文番号:1628)

8. Time savings appear only if the best plays **are looked at** early on in the game . B7D （文番号:1181）

9. Some further resources (or facilities) that are available for libraries to utilize other_than those discussed in this chapter , **are looked at** in Chapter 5 BNM （文番号:284）

10. The types of courses available **are looked at** in detail in chapter 4 . CHT （文番号:72）

11. Not all alternatives **are looked at** , rather those most familiar to decision-makers or deviating least from existing practice are examined first , in_order to cut down the information and transition costs associated with more radical changes . CS3 （文番号:472）

12. Budget restrictions and requirements **are being looked at** more closely . E9R （文番号:25）

13. These topics **are often looked at** in an historical context：changes in the patterning of family life with industrialization and urbanization are examined . EBR （文番号:252）

14. Two other dimensions of work which have been found less important in the case of the industrial worker **are also looked at** in this chapter：working hours and the technical environment . EBR （文番号:1329）

15. Many of these aspects **are looked at** in the following chapters . F9A (文番号:114)

16. If the letters of offer and acceptance **are looked at** alone then it is clear that the university was entitled to terminate the appointment on three months ' notice . FE3 (文番号:483)

17. Different approaches to the teaching of literacy **are looked at** critically . G0W (文番号:1880)

18. However , the picture is less optimistic when the figures **are looked at** a_little more closely . G20 (文番号:1618)

19. The parts that **are being looked at** may be very different but there is a uniformity about the emotion generated . H0E (文番号:78)

20. If the judgments in that case **are looked at** , it will be found that Willes J. said , in explaining the grounds of his judgment that under circumstances like those of the present case , the debt is gone , because it would be a fraud upon the stranger who pays part of a debt in discharge of the whole , that an action should be brought for the debt . H81 (文番号:1424)

21. Various other options **are being looked at** , including use of Mercury lines for cheaper long distance calls . HAT (文番号:158)

22. Comments stressed the need to allow adequate time to develop such units and to ensure that the units **are looked at** , and if need be edited , by colleagues . HBN (文番号:1108)

23. they **are looked at** as much as they are looked out_of . HGW (文番号:578)

24. The costs and benefits of the scheme **are being looked at** closely by the regional flood defence committee and the Ministry of Agriculture , Fisheries and Food . HHW (文番号:4670)

25. Gentlemen will know that those cases **are still looked at** fairly , HHW (文番号:8626)

26. There are a few instances , however , when even TNF needs further simplification , and these **are looked at** in Section 3.8 which may be skipped on first reading . HRK (文番号:1090)

27. environmental factors **are being looked at** for their &equo; genetic component &equo; . HSL (文番号:1118)

28. All aspects of IT (i.e. teaching and research , library and administrative) **are being looked at** as a whole . J2D (文番号:289)

29. " The conventions of the constitution , " as Professor LeMay observed , " have meaning only when they **are looked at** against a background of continuous political

change . J57 (文番号:1297)

30. Mr Webb , who is out_of the Country at them moment , says he welcomes that the accounts **are being looked at** , as he claims he 's still owed more_than £130,000 . K23 (文番号:1996)

[was looked at: 20]

1. Norman 's invitation to this year 's Masters **was looked at** with raised eyebrows by many , especially since , at this writing , the ever-steady Tom Kite needed to win New Orleans to get in on the Georgia garden party . AJ3 (文番号:525)

2. and the provision of central courses they offered **was also looked at** (in Chapter 5) BNM (文番号:870)

3. **Was looked at** and nervously fingered When her man was on the dole . CAV (文番号:500)

4. it **was more looked at** , glimpsed through , than read . EF6 (文番号:942)

5. This picture **was looked at** in more detail and the two lowest mathematics sets in each school were focused upon . EVV (文番号:463)

6. The reading and writing of whole numbers **was looked at** by asking pupils to write in numerals a number presented in words . EVV (文番号:659)

7. When the morning came they saw all the gardeners and weeders coming up_to the wall and every one **was looked at** by three guards . EWC (文番号:2474)

8. So it **was looked at** tying up police time . FYK (文番号:246)

9. As long ago as the 1960s the possibility of this form of cursor control **was being looked at** by the Stanford Research Institute in California and the first mouse was patented in 1970 . G00 (文番号:3016)

10. And erm it **was we looked at** one hospital and quite clear over the years , but there was an internal leak somewhere . G4U (文番号:494)

11. Jiu jitsu 's sporting form , that of judo , &bquo; the gentle way &equo; **was looked at** as a method for training law enforcement officers in arrest and hold techniques . GVF (文番号:250)

12. Th it **was being looked at** at one point H5E (文番号:444)

13. and every module **was looked at** . HBM (文番号:2003)

14.It **was looked at** by my hon. Friend the Under-Secretary of State and was available to the Court of Appeal when the appeal was turned down . HHX (文番号:1051)

15. Russell , his hat tilted forward a_little , **was looked at** his hands too . J2G (文番

号:698)

16. Okay , so what they did **was they looked at** what would be an attractive reinforcer in their work force erm　JT0　(文番号:166)

17. The Committee discussed the project at_length , and agreed to the grant on the condition that the budget , literature and question of sponsorship **was carefully looked at** .　KA5　(文番号:625)

18. Well the new one was the new one **was we looked at** one in the gas showroom when this Alright !　KD5　(文番号:3734)

19. I 'd turned around , sort_of he was there , so I sort_of went to him like that and he **was looked at** me and fucking looked back　KDA　(文番号:548)

20. It 's probably because I **was getting looked at** by erm a ginger haired boy　KST　(文番号:2184)

[were looked at: 16]

1. That the audition process was one that examined you totally — your private behaviour as_well_as your theatrical ability , the two feeding into each_other to find a way to suit the requirements of the part and the particular aspects that **were being looked at** by the director , Michael Blakemore .　A06　(文番号:1976)

2. Pets **were looked at** , never touched . AJU （文番号:425）

3. In this study four aspects of timing **were looked at**：length of_course — 3 hours , 6 hours , or 12 hours ; time of year ; part of the day for 3 hour courses ; and part of the day for 6 hour courses . ALC （文番号:948）

4. When they **were looked at** in more detail it was found that the colonies grew from one single tube (sicula) which is often facing in a different direction from the tubes inhabited by the rest of the colony (see below) . AMM （文番号:1808）

5. Secondly , whenever local politics **were looked at** , they were investigated using quantitative statistical techniques B2L （文番号:880）

6. We **were looked at** with the same sense of distrust that must have greeted the first plumber who installed running water there . BNP （文番号:358）

7. I can assure Mr Faris that the issues he raises **were looked at** and that the disclosures adopted were considered to be the most appropriate in the circumstances . CBV （文番号:165）

8. The perceived benefits of large-scale redevelopment **were looked at** again , costs notwithstanding , bearing in mind compulsory acquisition of housing , industrial and commercial property . G05 （文番号:208）

9. We 've looked Strategic sites **were looked at** after that event of December the eighth .

G4U （文番号:317）

10. The status of items that **were looked at** er educated and uneducated , intelligent unintelligent , wealthy poor , successful unsuccessful , and ambitious and carefree . G4V （文番号:149）

11. and his activities **were looked at** by the select committee on the copper trade of 1799 . GT7 （文番号:316）

12. Three techniques **were looked at** in outline : Network Analysis , Simulation , and Inventory Control . GUY （文番号:926）

13. Various models of urban structure **were looked at** , and the possibility of applying the Burgess model and using the &bquo; Transitional Zone &equo; as the second zone . H8W （文番号:350）

14. Increased earnings through tourism and foreign investment **were being looked at** as a means to assist the economy . HKR （文番号:3001）

15. Er , the forty , fifty sites in and around the urban area , and in villages **were looked at** in detail , as Mr Frost said , by tramping around in_terms_of of of I think er twelve criterium , although the part of er York City Council 's erm er evidence . HVK （文番号:484）

16. you **were looked at** and you had to be very tidy and proper and er if you did n't do it

you were told to do it and that was that . K69 (文番号:260)

[(aux.) or (to) be looked for: 26]

1. By this time trains were getting rare , and two hours might elapse during which time any sign of movement in Duckmanton South box would **be looked for** . AMR (文番号:213)

2. If a new set of different symptoms are seen , then another more appropriate remedy must **be looked for** . AN1 (文番号:311)

3. Changes in the container as_well_as in the product should **be looked for** and reported . ARY (文番号:359)

4. Some signs of occupation can **be looked for** , especially after rain . BNY (文番号:1199)

5. though comfort was not necessarily to **be looked for** and there was an outside chance of ending up with a foul-mouthed and drunken coachman for the length of the journey . CBJ (文番号:453)

6. They are to **be looked for** in our Western indigenous psychological explanations as much as in the domains of scientific pursuit which , as Riches notes above , are not themselves free from such ontological conceptions . CJ1 (文番号:164)

7. As a result , the key to the meaning of Jesus had come to **be looked for** , not in supernatural accreditation by miracles , but in his personality , his consciousness of God , his teaching and his impact upon his followers . CL6 (文番号:687)

8. Amy , however , suggested that the matter should be talked out again with the pharmacist , and that other sources of money should **be looked for** . CMR (文番号:502)

9. Finally , it seems also to be a taken-for-granted principle that in human affairs where there is order there is something corresponding to a rule to **be looked for** in the background of the actions which appear as orderly . ECN (文番号:529)

10. Quite often at this stage , sherds will be selected for illustration in the published report , and any joins between sherds will **be looked for** . F9A (文番号:616)

11. It is enough to say that that is not a proof of the counter proposition that outside the three miles no such result could **be looked for** . FP8 (文番号:1240)

12. in another sector common-carrier types of transmission , such_as cable and teletext opportunities for some significant recovery of direct access to their means of production , for some modern kinds of cultural producer , either exist or can **be realistically looked for** . FPC (文番号:1100)

13. The overlap between tort and contract should **be looked for** particularly in problems involving the negligent carriage of passengers by rail , road or sea , and the sale (or repair) of goods or houses that turn out not to be of merchantable quality or reasonably

fit and that cause physical injury to the buyer (or owner) . FRA （文番号:619）

14. By this &bquo; multiplex &equo; approach , for_example , all of the four (or more) common mutations causing cystic fibrosis can **be looked for** simultaneously in a single sample . FSY （文番号:1190）

15. Project members are normally overseen by a Steering Committee , representing relevant expertise that is not to **be looked for** within the institution itself . G0W （文番号:1146）

16. They did once , and should **be looked for** again . G2E （文番号:1469）

17. , and what the assessment objectives prescribe should **be looked for** in these subjects： H83 （文番号:1136）

18. Within the forests themselves a number of features should **be looked for** . H8U （文番号:1550）

19. While the pillow mounds , either isolated or in groups , are the most obvious field monuments , other features should **be looked for** . H8U （文番号:1590）

20. Whatever she could look for in the future must **be looked for** outside marriage .. HGG （文番号:399）

21. Where , on the other hand , we have sense-qualification , the property of A is not

applied as a property in itself to the entity identified by N (nor are any referential and perceptual correlates of the intensional property to **be looked for** in the actual referent , if there is one , corresponding to that entity) . HPY （文番号:751）

22. That other means of raising revenue will have to **be looked for** , I second . HUC （文番号:474）

23. and is not to **be looked for** in natural causes , in their genes , for_example , or in individual psychological experience , as was the prime focus of Freud in psychoanalysis . HUH （文番号:75）

24. This should **be carefully looked for** because it can be improved by biofeedback treatment . HWS （文番号:5565）

25. Section 2(3) provides that in considering the common duty of care , the circumstances include the degree of care and want of care which would ordinarily **be looked for** in such a visitor . HXV （文番号:1115）

26. but never any other procedure , no_matter_how eccentric or irrational — then reasons are not to **be looked for** . J17 （文番号:219）

[is looked for: 10]

1. if the treponeme **is looked for** , it will be found to be affecting many different organs in the body , from the liver to the lungs and the brain to the bones . ARH （文番号:1187）

2. Often , when some rare modern book **is looked for** , it is a Boots copy that is finally located . ARX （文番号:338）

3. The distinction between the individual and what **is being looked for** can be confused : the problem is that we do n't always know how much . BMT （文番号:686）

4. Note that although not required in law , corroboration of the victim 's evidence **is looked for** in practice . CE2 （文番号:2894）

5. Corroboration **is looked for** in practice and the following circumstances will usually amount to corroboration : CE2 （文番号:2911）

6. when what **is being looked for** is essentially a ratification of decisions already taken . EVP （文番号:1234）

7. The simplest accommodation is all that **is looked for** , just good clean sleeping rooms with blankets , somewhere to eat and a place to shelter from inclement weather . FP9 （文番号:1396）

8. It can be immensely useful — and that is what **is looked for** with lateral thinking — or it can be false . H0E （文番号:758）

9. In a mass item , although a high standard **is looked for** , the large number required may bring about a variation in levels of performance and the contents needs to allow for

this (e.g. working in sections) . HX8 （文番号:2817）

10. Nothing fancy **is looked for** in the way of bait and tackle : it 's the basic hook , line and worm . K5D （文番号:8439）

[are looked for: 1]

1. A work **are quite looked for** . KCV （文番号:3562）

[was looked for: 2]

1. what **was looked for** was wide reading , an appreciation of masterpieces , and a capacity to write well , attend to evidence , and disentangle sense from nonsense in argument . A1A （文番号:665）

2. But much latelier , in the private academies of Italy , wither I was favoured to resort , perceiving that some trifles which I had in memory , composed at under twenty or thereabouts , for the manner is that everyone must give some proof of his wit a reading there , met with acceptance above what **was looked for** , and other things which I had shifted in scarcity of books and conveniences to patch up amongst them , were received with written incomience which the Italian is not forward to bestow on men of this side the Alps . KRH （文番号:4227）

[were looked for: 2]

1. The fact that this extra testing can produce extra diagnoses implies that a proportion of those cases diagnosed as NGU would turn out to be trichomonal if only the organism **were adequately looked for** . ARH （文番号:657）

2. Fourteen diabetes related examinations **were looked for** in the medical records , ranging from visual acuity and foot pulses to random blood sugar and urine analysis . FT2 （文番号:1019）

[(aux.) or (to) be looked to: 5]

1. then the future could **be looked to** with confidence and hope . BM2 （文番号:76）

2. A term created by a leasehold tenancy agreement must be expressed either with certainty and specifically or by reference to something which can , at the time when the lease takes effect , **be looked to** as a certain ascertainment of what the term is meant to be . FCH （文番号:96）

3. If the aggrieved person is not in a contractual relationship with the person responsible for the loss or damage , other areas of law must **be looked to** for a remedy . HXD （文番号:1474）

4. at the time when the lease takes effect **be looked to** as a certain ascertainment of what the term is meant to be . HXW （文番号:1162）

5. by reference to something that can at the time the lease takes effect **be looked to** as a certain ascertainment of what the term is meant to be J6R （文番号:101）

[is looked to: 1]

1. it is as something that **is looked to** and not seen ; we do not exist . APS （文番号:1140）

[are looked to: 1]

1. The permanent members of the Security Council , who during the cold war were excluded from some operations , **are being looked to** more and more . CR7 （文番号:1270）

[was looked to: 1]

1. The UUAC **was looked to** as the natural vehicle for action . CCC （文番号:1830）

[were looked to: 1]

1.Publishers **were looked to** for far more support than in the past , as the following interview comments show GWL （文番号:596）

[(aux.) or (to) be looked over: 2]

1. Paul Shipton is doing the initial writing , and his manuscript will **be looked over** by Tom Hutchinson before being finalized . AP1 （文番号:1256）

2. I 'm sure the policy will **be well looked over** by our friend , comments by members have to make please . KN3 （文番号:16）

[was looked over: 1]

1. Seeing so much technology in use , the car **was &bquo; looked over** &equo; to see if we had a radar detector — we did n't . HAC （文番号:146）

[(aux.) or (to) be looked into: 23]

1. This needs to **be looked into** . A0D （文番号:2440）

2. Department knew that &bquo; Ollie was up_to something &equo; : something hyperactive , makeshift , slightly off-centre , not to **be looked into** . ADL （文番号:449）

3. Another aggrieved member wrote &bquo; the system of caddies , which is bad and rotten , **be thoroughly looked into** by a competent committee &equo; . AMY （文番号:398）

4. It is probable that during the short drive from the palace to Villeneuve l'Etang both decided that certain aspects of court protocol would have to **be looked into** and that changes would have to be made . ANR （文番号:407）

5. An avenue open to persons aggrieved , who feel they have suffered injustice because_of maladministration is to ask for their complaints to **be looked into** by either

the Local Commissioner or the Parliamentary Commissioner for Administration . B2D （文番号:749）

6. at_least , not nearly as much as that posed by the tonnes of poison whose storage , legal or otherwise , is now going to **be looked into** . B7G （文番号:2291）

7. Official moves to placate the students with promises that their complaints would **be looked into** eventually succeeded . CG0 （文番号:586）

8. That should **be looked into** , &equo; he said . CRE （文番号:2934）

9. but I mean when we think of the , the big issues , these are the big issues that need to **be looked into** . D95 （文番号:408）

10. Such issues as domiciliary day care , mobile day care and the day care which the voluntary sector can provide will need to **be looked into** . FTY （文番号:909）

11. Gentleman bear in mind the fact that we have children in_private as well as in local authority homes , all of which need to **be looked into** quickly ? HHX （文番号:926）

12. Family Solidarity is writing to Telecom and to the Minister for Communications asking that the matter **be looked into** and that the numbers given by these people be immediately disconnected . HJ3 （文番号:197）

13. A cyclist going over a pot hole is a very dangerous situation and this should **be**

looked into . JJ9 (文番号:344)

14. These points should be should **be looked into** but as I say I take my hat off to infer at_least having been loyalty to defend the inquest . JJ9 (文番号:359)

15. well could that **be further looked into** JK0 (文番号:543)

16. I think that definitely need to **be looked into** , as does the er , requirement of this particular post within the act . JS9 (文番号:306)

17. Obviously any allegations will **be looked into** . K47 (文番号:405)

18. I have formed the opinion that the conviction of Kenny Carter is not safe and that the matter should **be looked into** again K4W (文番号:2815)

19. This is a can of worms and really needs to **be looked into** carefully , &equo; he said . K54 (文番号:4714)

20. A spokesman for the borough engineer 's department said the matter would **be looked into** . K55 (文番号:1115)

21. The other suggestions will **be looked into** by buyers . K99 (文番号:412)

22. Yes , that is something that erm we 've erm made quite clear , as a result of our first major meeting , which we held two or three weeks ago , that sex equality , sex

stereotyping , are matters that have got to **be looked into** very carefully . KRH （文番号:2689）

23. There have been persistent reports of understaffing at Strangeways , is that one of the issues that will **be looked into** by this Inquiry ? KRT （文番号:3828）

[is looked into: 3]

1. I 'm assured by Program Solutions that the problem **is being looked into** , HAC （文番号:7466）

2. no_doubt it **is being looked into** by the authorities and by the police HHX （文番号:15307）

3. In_the_light_of certain information which has been passed to the Crown Office , the case **is being looked into.** K5M （文番号:4732）

[are looked into: 3]

1. Many such crimes **are looked into** by special regulatory bodies rather_than the police . B17 （文番号:725）

2. Any disagreements between members of the two Houses and the official records **are carefully looked into** and such is the integrity of the record that any attempt to alter it , except_for errors , would undoubtedly result in a national scandal . B25 （文番号:407）

3. In London the needs of people from ethnic groups **are being looked into** by other organisations like the Standing Conference of Ethnic Minority Senior Citizens (address on page 155) . B3G （文番号:1140）

[was looked into: 3]

1. Not that I heard , but I believe it **was looked into** . H85 （文番号:3599）

2. There was some impression of novelty simply because the subject **was newly looked into** . HP2 （文番号:1345）

3. Yesterday Mrs McIntyre said she had received a letter saying the matter **was being looked into** and apologising for the distress caused to Mrs Morrison . K52 （文番号:6716）

[are gone on: 1]

1. Roger and the young mason **are gone on** together for Ramsey . G0M （文番号:145）

[was gone to: 1]

1. the town **was gone to** by him &equo; . FRL （文番号:381）

[were gone to: 1]

1. Extraordinary lengths **were therefore gone to** to cajole and inspire the rather bewildered Indians , once they had been promised their independence , into requesting Commonwealth membership . C90 （文番号:1211）

[(aux.) or (to) be gone over: 4]

1. So much work still had to be done , so much work had to **be gone over** again . A6N （文番号:1952）

2. But she was too bright and restless with happiness , the newly-stirred memories , to **be gone over** , noted and enjoyed , for any unhappiness merely because soup was denied her . AD1 （文番号:1965）

3. This area is to **be gone over** with a fine tooth-comb . G01 （文番号:567）

4. Got to be re-drawn in black and white , that 'll **be gone over** HYJ （文番号:46）

[was gone over: 1]

1. As before , a little water was used to thin the acrylic to the consistency of cream and most of it **was gone over** twice to get an even coverage of bright intense colour . CN4 （文番号:465）

[(aux.) or (to) be gone into: 1]

1. The economic and political complexities of European history which made the brutal exploitation of native South American Indians so attractive to Spain need not **be gone into** here , ACL （文番号:876）

[(aux.) or (to) be gone through: 20]

1. The customary processes of consultation &equo; would **be gone through** , ADB （文番号:552）

2. I suggest that there are a number of steps which should **be gone through** towards this end . B25 （文番号:1234）

3. It just had to **be gone through** . C86 （文番号:2946）

4. a hybrid Bill and its passage had to be deferred in_order that the above procedures could **be gone through** . C8R （文番号:744）

5. Pain has to be faced , to **be gone through** , you ca n't make it better by getting into bed with me . CB8 （文番号:1172）

6. It will be seen that the new s 370A is not a significant change , since all the formalities of calling and holding a meeting would have to **be gone through** . CBU （文番号:2733）

7. Often images and often the sense of the beginning and the end of a poem are all you have — some journey to **be gone through** between those things — you know that , but you do n't know the details . CG3 （文番号:697）

8. He listened to what I had to say about the procedure still to **be gone through** and hoped that they would soon hear whether Balbinder had a place . CRS （文番号:1534）

9. Various other procedures have to **be gone through** but it is expected that the title will be completed within the next six months . GXH （文番号:141）

10. the departments would have to **be totally gone through** you know , GYV （文番号:173）

11. Various other procedures have to **be gone through** but it is expected that the title will be completed within the next six months . HD1 （文番号:140）

12. all affirmative orders would be the subject of a separate debate so_that these very important matters could **be gone through** line by line , HHX （文番号:9856）

13. Instead , a full selection procedure was to **be gone through** during the lifetime of a Parliament , thus allowing other aspiring candidates to be considered . J57 （文番号:1500）

14. Now if you get and this of_course once_again will **be gone through** in much more detail er on the training school . J9Y （文番号:583）

15. We list the advertisers put all this detail down which once_again will be er will **be gone through** . JA3 （文番号:597）

16. the every black sack that comes in has to **be gone through** , JNG （文番号:152）

17. There are procedures to **be gone through** which were the same as for Mrs Thatcher 's proposal Voice over K1F （文番号:2346）

18. If the pregnancy has to **be gone through** and does continue and the mother does not want to or can not keep the child there is the option of adoption . KA1 （文番号:770）

19. there 's an awful lot of paperwork that 's got to **be gone through** and an awful lot of people to see and an awful lot of red tape , really , to get through first KRG （文番号:1030）

20. There 's an awful lot of paperwork that 's got to **be gone through** , KRH （文番号:440）

[is gone through: 1]

1. And I said can you tell me if erm this cheque **is gone through** to er Peter . KBE （文番号:4018）

[are gone through: 1]

1. Under this Standing Order , a Bill is taken to be read a first time if certain formalities **are gone through** . C8R　(文番号:776)

[was gone through: 3]

1. but now they stood or sat in silence holding their children to them as the liturgy **was gone through** . APC　(文番号:232)

2. A process of selection **was gone through** resulting in a short leet of three being chosen to tender for the design/build contract . GXJ　(文番号:2849)

3. The laughter abruptly changed into sneezes and the handkerchief routine **was gone through** again . HTG　(文番号:2632)

[were gone through: 1]

1. The formalities **were gone through** — including , in this case , the obtaining of a marriage licence　CBJ　(文番号:532)

[is come on: 1]

1. Aye , I know where it **is come on** up here . KE1　(文番号:1954)

[are come on: 1]

1. Let me see how you **are come on** in your writing . FU4　(文番号:232)

[is come to: 1]

1. It is sensibly debated and a sensible solution **is come to** .　EFD　(文番号:244)

[are come to: 1]

1. t is a sorry pass we **are come to** when a lady is robbed of the clothes on her back . HH1　(文番号:3061)

[be come in: 1]

1. And some times the ship would **be come in** quite close to us and could n't hear anything .　K7E　(文番号:190)

[are come in: 1]

1. Yeah er **are daddy come in** and daddy come out　KD1　(文番号:1555)

[was come by: 1]

1. What if somebody **was tae come by** ?　ALL　(文番号:1080)

Appendices to Chapter 6

Appendix (1)

BNC (E)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
elated	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*	*
enamored	OK	OK	*	*	*	*	*	*
engaged	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	?	OK	OK
excited	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
experienced	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK

BNC (F)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
famished	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
farsighted	OK	*	*	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
fixed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
fought	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	?	*	*
frosted	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*
frozen	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	?	OK	OK

BNC (G)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
gifted	OK	?	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
gnarled	OK	*	*	OK	OK	*	*	*
graduated	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	?	OK	*
granulated	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	*	*	*

BNC (H)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
hackneyed	?	*	*	OK	OK	*	OK	*
heated	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
hooked	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	?	?	OK
hotshot	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
hurried	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK

BNC (I)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
impassioned	OK	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
inclined	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
included	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	*
incorporated	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*
indebted	?	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
indisposed	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	*	*	OK
inebriated	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK
infatuated	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*
informed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
ingrained	OK	*	*	OK	OK	OK	*	OK
inhibited	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
inspired	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
involved	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK

BNC (J)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
jaded	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK

jagged	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
jaundiced	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK

BNC (K)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
kept	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	?	*
kindred	*	*	*	*	OK	*	*	*
knelt	OK	OK	*	?	OK	*	*	*

BNC (L)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
laid	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
landed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	*
learned	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
legged	?	*	*	OK	OK	*	?	?
loaded	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
lopsided	*	*	*	OK	OK	*	*	*

BNC (M)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
maladjusted	*	*	*	OK	OK	*	*	*
mannered	*	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
marked	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
measured	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
minded	OK	OK	?	OK	OK	?	OK	*
misconceived	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	*	*	OK
misguided	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK

mistaken	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	?	OK
mixed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
mottled	OK	*	?	OK	OK	*	*	*
mounted	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	?	*	*

BNC (O)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
organized	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*

BNC (P)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
packed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
poised	OK	?	?	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
polyunsaturated	*	*	*	OK	OK	*	OK	*
preconceived	OK	*	*	*	OK	*	*	*
premeditated	OK	*	*	OK	OK	*	*	*
pressed	OK	?	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
privileged	OK	?	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
protracted	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*

BNC (Q)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
quadruped	*	*	*	OK	OK	*	*	*
qualified	OK	?	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
quilted	OK	*	*	OK	OK	*	*	*

BNC (R)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem

ragged	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
rarefied	OK	?	*	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
refined	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
related	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
relieved	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
repeated	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	*
reputed	OK	*	*	OK	OK	*	*	*
reserved	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
retarded	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	?	*
ridged	OK	*	?	OK	OK	*	*	*
rotten	OK	*	?	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
rugged	OK	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK

BNC (S)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
sacred	?	*	?	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
sophisticated	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
spirited	OK	?	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
subdued	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
supposed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*
surprised	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK

BNC (T)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
taught	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*	*
tempered	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	*

thought	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	?	?
tired	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
tried	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	*

BNC (U)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
used	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK

BNC (V)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
versed	?	*	*	OK	*	*	*	*

BNC (W)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
wicked	OK	OK	?	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
withdrawn	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
wooden	*	*	*	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
worried	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
wounded	OK	?	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
wretched	*	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
written	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK

Appendix (2)

BNC (E)	elated	enamored	engaged	excited	experienced
Verbal	3	2	3	3	3
Adjectival	0	0	3	5	5

BNC (F)	famished	farsighted	fixed	fought	frosted	frozen
Verbal	2	1	3	3	1	3
Adjectival	4	1	5	1	0	4

BNC (G)	gifted	gnarled	graduated	granulated
Verbal	2	1	2	2
Adjectival	4	2	3	2

BNC (H)	hackneyed	heated	hooked	hotshot	hurried
Verbal	0	3	3	0	3
Adjectival	3	4	3	0	5

BNC (I)	impassioned	inclined	included	incorporated	indebted	indisposed
Verbal	1	2	3	3	0(1)	2
Adjectival	4	5	3	2	5	3

BNC (I)	inebriated	infatuated	informed	ingrained	inhibited	inspired	involved
Verbal	2	2	3	1	3	3	3
Adjectival	4	2	4	4	4	5	5

BNC (J)	jaded	jagged	jaundiced
Verbal	2	2	2
Adjectival	4	5	4

BNC (K)	kept	kindred	knelt
Verbal	3	0	2
Adjectival	1	1	1

BNC (L)	laid	landed	learned	legged	loaded	lopsided
Verbal	3	3	3	0	3	0
Adjectival	5	3	4	2	5	2

BNC (M)	maladjusted	mannered	marked	measured	minded	misconceived
Verbal	0	0	3	3	2	2
Adjectival	2	5	5	5	3	3

BNC (M)	misguided	mistaken	mixed	mottled	mounted
Verbal	2	3	3	1	3
Adjectival	5	4	5	2	2

BNC (P)	packed	poised	polyunsaturated	preconceived
Verbal	3	2	0	1
Adjectival	5	4	3	1
BNC (P)	premeditated	pressed	privileged	protracted

Verbal	1	2	2	3
Adjectival	2	4	5	4

BNC (O)	organized	Subject (a) (Q)	quadruped	qualified	quilted
Verbal	3	Verbal	0	2	1
Adjectival	4	Adjectival	2	4	2

BNC (R)	ragged	rarefied	refined	related	relieved	repeated
Verbal	2	1	3	3	3	3
Adjectival	5	4	4	5	5	3
BNC (R)	reputed	reserved	retarded	ridged	rotten	rugged
Verbal	1	3	3	1	1	1
Adjectival	2	4	3	2	5	5

BNC (S)	sacred	sophisticated	spirited	subdued	supposed	surprised
Verbal	0	2	1	3	3	3
Adjectival	4	5	4	5	2	5

BNC (T)	taught	tempered	thought	tired	tried
Verbal	3	2	3	2	3
Adjectival	1	3	2	5	3

BNC (U)	used	BNC (V)	versed
Verbal	3	Verbal	0

Adjectival	5	**Adjectival**	1

BNC (W)	**wicked**	**withdrawn**	**wooden**	**worried**	**wounded**	**wretched**	**written**
Verbal	2(3)	3	0	3	2	0	3
Adjectival	5	5	4	5	4	5	4

Appendix(3)

Subject (a) (E)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
elated	OK	*	OK	OK	*	*	OK	*
enamored	OK	OK	*	*	*	*	OK	*
engaged	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	?	OK	OK
excited	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
experienced	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK

Subject (a) (F)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
famished	OK	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
farsighted	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
fixed	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
fought	OK	*	OK	*	*	?	*	*
frosted	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	*	*	OK
frozen	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	?	OK	OK

Subject (a) (G)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
gifted	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
gnarled	OK	*	*	OK	OK	*	*	*
graduated	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	?	*	*

granulated	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*

Subject (a) (H)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
hackneyed	OK	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
heated	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
hooked	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	?	?	OK
hotshot	*	*	*	*	OK	*	*	*
hurried	OK	*	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	OK

Subject (a) (I)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
impassioned	OK	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
inclined	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
included	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	*
incorporated	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*
indebted	?	*	*	OK	*	OK	OK	OK
indisposed	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	*	*	OK
inebriated	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK
infatuated	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*
informed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
ingrained	OK	*	*	OK	OK	OK	*	OK
inhibited	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*

inspired	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
involved	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK

Subject (a) (J)	**infl.**	**active**	**by-phrase**	**predicative**	**attributive**	**very**	**more**	**seem**
jaded	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
jagged	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
jaundiced	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK

Subject (a) (K)	**infl.**	**active**	**by-phrase**	**predicative**	**attributive**	**very**	**more**	**seem**
kept	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	?	*
kindred	*	*	*	*	OK	*	*	*
knelt	OK	OK	*	?	*	*	*	*

Subject (a) (L)	**infl.**	**active**	**by-phrase**	**predicative**	**attributive**	**very**	**more**	**seem**
laid	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
landed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	*
learned	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
legged	*	*	*	OK	OK	*	?	?
loaded	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
lopsided	*	*	*	OK	OK	*	*	*

Subject (a) (M)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
maladjusted	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*
mannered	*	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
marked	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
measured	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
minded	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	?	OK	*
misconceived	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	*	*	OK
misguided	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
mistaken	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	?	OK
mixed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
mottled	OK	*	?	OK	OK	*	*	*
mounted	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	?	*	*

Subject (a) (O)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
organized	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*

Subject (a) (P)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
packed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
poised	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
polyunsaturated	*	*	*	OK	OK	*	OK	*
preconceived	OK	*	*	*	OK	*	*	*

premeditated	OK	*	*	OK	OK	*	*	*
pressed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
privileged	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
protracted	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*

Subject (a) (Q)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
quadruped	*	*	*	OK	OK	*	*	*
qualified	OK	?	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
quilted	OK	*	*	OK	OK	*	*	*

Subject (a) (R)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
ragged	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
rarefied	OK	?	*	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
refined	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
related	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
relieved	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
repeated	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	*
reputed	OK	*	*	OK	OK	*	*	*
reserved	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
retarded	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	?	*
ridged	OK	*	?	OK	OK	*	*	*
rotten	OK	*	?	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK

rugged	OK	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK

Subject (a) (S)	**infl.**	**active**	**by-phrase**	**predicative**	**attributive**	**very**	**more**	**seem**
sacred	?	*	?	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
sophisticated	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
spirited	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
subdued	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
supposed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*
surprised	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK

Subject (a) (T)	**infl.**	**active**	**by-phrase**	**predicative**	**attributive**	**very**	**more**	**seem**
taught	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*	*
tempered	*	*	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	*
thought	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	?	?
tired	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
tried	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	*

Subject (a) (U)	**infl.**	**active**	**by-phrase**	**predicative**	**attributive**	**very**	**more**	**seem**
used	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK

Subject (a) (V)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
versed	?	*	*	OK	*	*	*	*

Subject (a) (W)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
wicked	OK	OK	?	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
withdrawn	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
wooden	*	*	*	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
worried	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
wounded	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
wretched	*	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
written	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK

Appendix (4)

Subject (a) (E)	elated	enamored	engaged	excited	experienced
Verbal	2	2	3	3	2
Adjectival	2	1	4	5	5

Subject (a) (F)	famished	farsighted	fixed	fought	frosted	frozen
Verbal	1	2	2	2	2	2
Adjectival	4	5	5	0	3	4

Subject (a) (G)	gifted	gnarled	graduated	granulated
Verbal	3	1	3	3
Adjectival	4	2	1	4

Subject (a) (H)	hackneyed	heated	hooked	hotshot	hurried
Verbal	1	2	2	0	2
Adjectival	4	4	3	1	4

Subject (a) (I)	impassioned	inclined	included	incorporated	indebted	indisposed
Verbal	1	2	3	3	0(1)	2
Adjectival	4	5	3	2	4	3

Subject (a) (I)	inebriated	infatuated	informed	ingrained	inhibited	inspired	involved

Verbal	2	2	3	1	3	3	3
Adjectival	4	2	4	4	4	5	5

Subject (a) (J)	jaded	jagged	jaundiced
Verbal	2	2	2
Adjectival	4	5	4

Subject (a) (K)	kept	kindred	knelt
Verbal	3	0	2
Adjectival	2	1	0

Subject (a) (L)	laid	landed	learned	legged	loaded	lopsided
Verbal	1	3	3	0	3	0
Adjectival	5	3	4	2	5	2

Subject (a) (M)	maladjusted	mannered	marked	measured	minded	misconceived
Verbal	2	0	3	3	2	2
Adjectival	2	5	5	5	3	3

Subject (a) (M)	misguided	mistaken	mixed	mottled	mounted
Verbal	2	3	3	1	3
Adjectival	5	4	5	2	2

Subject (a) (P)	packed	poised	polyunsaturated	preconceived

Verbal	3	3	0	1
Adjectival	5	4	3	1
Subject (a) (P)	premeditated	pressed	privileged	protracted
Verbal	1	3	2	3
Adjectival	2	4	5	4

Subject (a) (O)	organized	Subject (a) (Q)	quadruped	qualified	quilted
Verbal	3	Verbal	0	2	1
Adjectival	4	Adjectival	2	4	2

Subject (a) (R)	ragged	rarefied	refined	related	relieved	repeated
Verbal	2	1	3	3	3	3
Adjectival	5	4	4	5	5	3
Subject (a) (R)	reputed	reserved	retarded	ridged	rotten	rugged
Verbal	1	3	3	1	1	1
Adjectival	2	4	3	2	5	5

Subject (a) (S)	sacred	sophisticated	spirited	subdued	supposed	surprised
Verbal	0(2)	2	2	3	3	3
Adjectival	4	5	4	5	2	5

Subject (a) (T)	taught	tempered	thought	tired	tried
Verbal	3	1	3	2	3
Adjectival	1	3	2	5	3

Subject (a) (U)	used	Subject (a) (V)	versed
Verbal	3	Verbal	0
Adjectival	5	Adjectival	1

Subject (a) (W)	wicked	withdrawn	wooden	worried	wounded	wretched	written
Verbal	2(3)	3	0	3	3	0	3
Adjectival	5	5	4	5	4	5	4

Appendix (5)

Subject (b) (E)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
elated	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
enamored	OK	OK	*	*	OK	*	*	*
engaged	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	?	OK	OK
excited	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
experienced	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK

Subject (b) (F)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
famished	OK	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
farsighted	OK	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
fixed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
fought	OK(?)	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*	*
frosted	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*
frozen	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK

Subject (b) (G)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
gifted	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
gnarled	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
graduated	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	?	OK	*

granulated	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	*	*	*

Subject (b) (H)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
hackneyed	OK	*	*	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
heated	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
hooked	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	OK
hotshot	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
hurried	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	OK

Subject (b) (I)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
impassioned	OK	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
inclined	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
included	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	*
incorporated	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*
indebted	OK	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
indisposed	OK	*	*	OK	OK	*	*	OK
inebriated	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
infatuated	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
informed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
ingrained	OK	*	*	OK	OK	OK	*	OK
inhibited	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK

inspired	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
involved	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK

Subject (b) (J)	**infl.**	**active**	**by-phrase**	**predicative**	**attributive**	**very**	**more**	**seem**
jaded	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
jagged	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
jaundiced	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK

Subject (b) (K)	**infl.**	**active**	**by-phrase**	**predicative**	**attributive**	**very**	**more**	**seem**
kept	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*
kindred	*	*	*	*	OK	*	*	*
knelt	*	OK	*	*	*	*	*	*

Subject (b) (L)	**infl.**	**active**	**by-phrase**	**predicative**	**attributive**	**very**	**more**	**seem**
laid	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*
landed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	*
learned	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
legged	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	*	*	OK
loaded	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
lopsided	OK	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK

Subject (b) (M)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
maladjusted	OK	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
mannered	OK	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
marked	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
measured	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
minded	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*
misconceived	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	*	*	OK
misguided	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
mistaken	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
mixed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
mottled	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*
mounted	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*

Subject (b) (O)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
organized	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK

Subject (b) (P)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
packed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
poised	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
polyunsaturated	*	*	*	OK	OK	*	*	*
preconceived	*	*	*	*	OK	*	*	*

premeditated	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	*	*	OK
pressed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
privileged	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
protracted	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*

Subject (b) (Q)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
quadruped	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
qualified	OK	?	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
quilted	OK	*	*	OK	OK	*	*	*

Subject (b) (R)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
ragged	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
rarefied	OK	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
refined	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
related	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
relieved	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
repeated	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	*
reputed	OK	*	*	OK	?	*	*	*
reserved	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
retarded	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
ridged	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
rotten	OK	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK

rugged	OK	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK

Subject (b) (S)	**infl.**	**active**	**by-phrase**	**predicative**	**attributive**	**very**	**more**	**seem**
sacred	OK	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
sophisticated	OK	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
spirited	OK	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	*
subdued	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
supposed	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	*	*
surprised	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK

Subject (b) (T)	**infl.**	**active**	**by-phrase**	**predicative**	**attributive**	**very**	**more**	**seem**
taught	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	*
tempered	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	*
thought	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	?	?
tired	OK	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
tried	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK	*

Subject (b) (U)	**infl.**	**active**	**by-phrase**	**predicative**	**attributive**	**very**	**more**	**seem**
used	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK

Subject (b) (V)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
versed	?	*	*	OK	*	*	*	*

Subject (b) (W)	infl.	active	by-phrase	predicative	attributive	very	more	seem
wicked	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
withdrawn	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
wooden	OK	*	*	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
worried	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
wounded	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	OK
wretched	OK	*	*	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
written	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	*	OK	*

Appendix (6)

Subject (b) (E)	elated	enamored	engaged	excited	experienced
Verbal	2	2	3	3	3
Adjectival	4	0	3(4)	5	5

Subject (b) (F)	famished	farsighted	fixed	fought	frosted	frozen
Verbal	1	1	3	2(3)	3	3
Adjectival	5	5	4	1	2	4

Subject (b) (G)	gifted	gnarled	graduated	granulated
Verbal	2	2	2	2
Adjectival	5	4	3(4)	2

Subject (b) (H)	hackneyed	heated	hooked	hotshot	hurried
Verbal	1	3	3	0	3
Adjectival	4	5	3	0	5

Subject (b) (I)	impassioned	inclined	included	incorporated	indebted	indisposed
Verbal	1	2	3	3	1	1
Adjectival	4	5	3	2	5	3

Subject (b) (I)	inebriated	infatuated	informed	ingrained	inhibited	inspired	involved

Verbal	2	2	3	1	3	3	3
Adjectival	5	5	5	4	5	5	5

Subject (b) (J)	jaded	jagged	jaundiced
Verbal	2	2	2
Adjectival	4	5	4

Subject (b) (K)	kept	kindred	knelt
Verbal	3	0	1
Adjectival	2	1	1

Subject (b) (L)	laid	landed	learned	legged	loaded	lopsided
Verbal	3	3	3	2	3	1
Adjectival	2	3	5	3	5	5

Subject (b) (M)	maladjusted	mannered	marked	measured	minded	misconceived
Verbal	1	1	3	3	3	2
Adjectival	5	5	5	5	2	3

Subject (b) (M)	misguided	mistaken	mixed	mottled	mounted
Verbal	2	3	3	2	3
Adjectival	5	5	5	2	2

Subject (b) (P)	packed	poised	polyunsaturated	preconceived

Verbal	3	3	0	0
Adjectival	5	5	2	1
Subject (b) (P)	premeditated	pressed	privileged	protracted
Verbal	2	3	2	3
Adjectival	3	4	5	4

Subject (b)(O)	organized	Subject (b) (Q)	quadruped	qualified	quilted
Verbal	3	Verbal	0	2(3)	1
Adjectival	5	Adjectival	0	4	2

Subject (b) (R)	ragged	rarefied	refined	related	relieved	repeated
Verbal	3	1	3	3	3	3
Adjectival	5	4	5	5	5	3
Subject (b) (R)	reputed	reserved	retarded	ridged	rotten	rugged
Verbal	1	3	3	1	1	1
Adjectival	1(2)	4	5	4	5	5

Subject (b) (S)	sacred	sophisticated	spirited	subdued	supposed	surprised
Verbal	1	1	1	3	3	3
Adjectival	4	5	4	5	2	5

Subject (b) (T)	taught	tempered	thought	tired	tried
Verbal	3	3	3	2	3
Adjectival	3	3	2(4)	5	3

Subject (b) (U)	used	Subject (a) (V)	versed
Verbal	3	Verbal	0(1)
Adjectival	5	Adjectival	1

Subject (b) (W)	wicked	withdrawn	wooden	worried	wounded	wretched	written
Verbal	3	3	1	3	3	1	3
Adjectival	5	5	4	5	4	5	3

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