

平成 27 年度実施
東北大学大学院情報科学研究科
博士課程前期入学試験問題
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専門試験科目 第5群
(一般)

言語・メディア群

注意

- 以下には、専門科目 8 問題が印刷されている。
- 受験者は、そのなかから 3 問題を選んで、答案用紙に解答すること。
- 言語系を志望する学生は、問題 6～問題 8 のなかから、2 問題以上を選択すること。
- メディア系を志望する学生は、問題 2～問題 4 のなかから、2 問題以上を選択すること。
- 問題 1 を選択した場合には、指定の解答用紙を使用すること。
- 問題 5－1 あるいは問題 5－2 を選択した場合には、辞書を使用しても構わない。ただし、辞書は出題者が用意したものを使用するので、必要な場合には試験官に申し出ること。
- 試験終了後、答案用紙に加えて、この問題冊子も回収する。

問題 1

「セキュリティ」、「コミュニケーション」、「リテラシー」の 3 語をキーワードとして、各自考えるところを 600 字以上 800 字以内の日本語でまとめなさい。その際、キーワードは 3 語とも使い、題名をつけて、首尾一貫した論理で記述しなさい。

※この問題を選択した場合には、指定された答案用紙に解答を記入すること。

問題 2

以下の文章を読んだ上で、情報化の進展による学び方の多様化と、そのために必要となる情報リテラシーについて、答案用紙 1 枚程度であなたの考えを論じなさい。

情報化の進展により、学校外の学習機会が増加している。eラーニングによる在宅学習やユビキタス機器を用いた体験学習をはじめ、ワークショップ、サイエンスコミュニケーション、博物館、企業における人材育成などの領域において、情報通信技術を活用した生涯学習の基盤が整いつつある。

（出典：山内祐平・山田政寛編著『インフォーマル学習』ミネルヴァ書房，2016）

問題 3

以下の文章を読み、デジタルメディアに関する 5 つの変化のなかから、あなたが最も重要だと考える変化を 1 つ取り上げ、そのメリットとデメリットについて日本語または英語で、答案用紙 1 枚程度で論じなさい。

The rise of computing technology changed the media landscape in a variety of important ways.

First, media content could now be created in digital form, stored in the 1s and 0s of computer code. This meant that traditionally distinct forms of media — text, image, audio, and video — now converged. In digital terms, there is no difference between a movie, a recorded song, a family snapshot, and an e-book chapter; they are all collections of digital information. Media devices were no longer distinct either. A digital recording can be created, copied, distributed, and played on any computerized device with appropriate software: desktop computer, MP3 player, cell phone, and the like.

Second, digitization changed the world of media production as well. Authors replaced the pen with word processors. Filmmakers turned to digital video recording and editing techniques. Musicians manipulated recordings in software programs. And in some cases, media creation for different platforms merged. The distinctions between different media have become far less significant.

Third, the rise of the Internet provided an unprecedented global platform on which digitally based media content could be distributed and consumed. The Internet made it easier to distribute media content, to share it, and to find new media content of all sorts. Previously, separated devices were needed to access different media forms. Now, the Internet quickly delivered all of these to any desktop computer with Internet access.

Fourth, computers, digitization and the Internet enabled greater interactivity among media users, and between media users and media content. This allowed users to seek out a wider range of content, customize media products and delivery options, provide feedback, share and discuss with friends, and even create original media content, becoming producers as well as consumers.

Fifth, as technologies advanced, computers became smaller and more mobile. A smartphone is not really a phone in the traditional sense at all; it is a mobile computer, one of whose functions happens to be making “telephone” calls. The rise of mobile technologies has included smaller tablet computers, smartphones, and portable MP3 players — along with the emerging market of wearable computer devices in the form of glasses and wristwatches. All of these devices have made it easier to access media content, expanded the places where we can use media, and increased the amount of time we spend connected to media and communications networks.

(出典 : David Croteau, William Hoynes (2014) *Media/Society: Industries, Images, and Audiences* [一部改変])

問題 4

近年、メディアを問わない「情報の中味」を指示する用語として「コンテンツ」という言葉が広まり、アニメやマンガはゲームやライトノベルなどと合わせて「キャラクターコンテンツ」とひとまとめに呼ばれるようになった。しかしながら、キャラクター（登場人物）の「心」「身体」「声」を表象する方法は、メディアによって大きく異なっている。

小説の映画化、マンガのアニメ化など、メディアミックスの具体的な事例を1つ挙げ、キャラクターの「心」「身体」「声」の表現法が原作と翻案とでどのように異なるかを考察したうえで、「コンテンツ」という概念の有効性と限界について、答案用紙1枚程度で論じなさい。

問題 5

以下の問題 5-1（ドイツ語）、問題 5-2（フランス語）のうちから 一つ を選択して解答しなさい。なお、この問題を選択した場合には、辞書を使用しても構わない。ただし、辞書は出題者が用意したものを使用するので、必要な場合には試験官に申し出ること。

*この問題を選択した場合には、解答用紙左上にある「問題番号」の欄に「5-1」あるいは「5-2」と記入すること。

問題 5 - 1

以下のドイツ語の文章を日本語に訳しなさい。

Ein neues Pflichtfach für alle Schulen fordert die SPD: Schüler sollen zukünftig nicht mehr an Informatik vorbeikommen - damit sie sich "souverän in der digitalen Gesellschaft" bewegen können. Die SPD will die Internetkompetenz von Schülern stärken und ein Pflichtfach Informatik einführen. Wie aus einem Papier für die am Donnerstag beginnende Klausur der SPD-Bundestagsfraktion in Mainz hervorgeht, sollen die Bundesländer dafür sorgen, "dass an allen Schulen und in allen Schul- und Altersstufen ein verpflichtender Informatikunterricht" zum Lehrplan gehört.

So sollen Kinder und Jugendliche früh am Computer Programmiersprachen und "die Logik von Algorithmen" lernen. Der Wandel zur digitalen Gesellschaft dürfe nicht nur von der Technologie-Seite angepackt, sondern müsse in der Gesellschaft verankert werden, sagte der Vizechef der SPD-Fraktion, Sören Bartol: "Unser Bildungssystem muss mit dem digitalen Wandel Schritt halten, damit Jung und Alt sich selbstständig und souverän in der digitalen Gesellschaft verwirklichen können." Die Forderung nach verpflichtendem Informatikunterricht wird auch vom Branchenverband Bitcom schon länger erhoben.

*SPD:社会民主党

(出典 : <http://www.spiegel.de/schulspiegel/wissen/spd-fordert-neues-pflichtfach-informatik-fuer-schulen-a-1051061.html>)

問題 5 - 2

以下のフランス語の文章を日本語に訳しなさい。

C'est une scène familière. Un enfant prend un livre et le tend à un parent : « Tu me lis une histoire ? » Ou bien c'est l'adulte qui invite l'enfant, ou même le bébé, à regarder avec lui les pages d'un livre. À la maison, à la crèche, chez la nourrice, à l'école maternelle, il le lui lit même parfois avant qu'il ne puisse en comprendre complètement l'histoire. La voix supplée alors au décalage entre la capacité linguistique du tout petit et le récit : elle exagère les modalités du langage, stylise les émotions, souligne la cérémonie des répétitions et des ruptures. Même le corps du lecteur peut venir à la rescousse : des gestes peuvent mimer le rythme, accompagner le drame. En somme, le lecteur adulte fait naître autour du livre une sorte de petit théâtre dont le bébé ou l'enfant est l'auditeur et le spectateur.

(出典 Hélène Merlin-Kajman, *Lire dans la gueule du loup*, Collection NRF Essais, Gallimard, 2016.)

問題 6

否定表現について書かれた以下の文章を読んで、問いに答えなさい。

In certain contexts, some lexical items in natural language come to serve grammatical functions. Once grammaticalized, they continue to develop new linguistic functions. Nouns and verbs, for example, may change over time into grammatical markers. Such processes are known as grammaticalization: (A) Most research on grammaticalization has focused on the development of such categories as modality, voice, tense, aspect, etc. Little attention has been paid, however, to the grammatical development of negation.

Negative expressions in Japanese can be basically formed by using an adjectival marker *nai* 'non-existent', whose positive counterpart is *aru* 'existent' (or 'exist'). Instead of using such negative terms as 'not' or 'no', Japanese basically uses an adjective marker *nai* to change the meaning of a given expression from positive to negative. A variety of Japanese negative expressions can be made by adding this marker to basic predicates. Basic predicates in Japanese fall under the following four categories: Verb, Adjective, Nominal-Adjective, and Noun plus Copula (e.g. (i) <Verb> *taberu* 'eat' / *tabe-nai* 'not-eat', (ii) <adjective>: *kuroi* 'black' / *kuroku-nai* 'not-black', (iii) <Nominal-Adjective>: *sizuka da* 'quiet' / *sizuka dewa nai* 'not quiet', (iv) <Noun-Copula>: *yuki da* 'is snow' / *yuki dewa nai* 'is not snow').

There exist, however, other types of indirect system of negative expressions which are derived from various spatial and locational expressions.

A large portion of our cognitive capacity is based on our bodily and spatial experience in the external world. (B) A variety of information about space provides us with a wide range of basic concepts in our daily lives, in terms of which abstract or complex concepts can be comprehended in an indirect way. The concept of time is one of the most important whose understanding depends crucially on that of spatial concepts. Another crucial concept is that of negation. The understanding of negation in natural language should sometimes be achieved in an indirect way through metaphorical interpretation of spatial cognition and experience.

Some of the ways in which we understand the external world are grounded in our subjective experience of spatial cognition. Our subjective interpretation of the external world sometimes leads us to impose some boundaries on the physical space or surroundings. When they are not definitely bounded or discrete, we still construe them as some kinds of containers or bounded spaces. The psychological and perceptual understanding of containment and boundedness constitutes one of the most central parts of our cognitive experience, What is especially interesting about this fact is that the subjective experience of containment and boundedness enters into our indirect understanding of negation (or negative reasoning). This kind of understanding is reflected in the conceptual system which underlyingly characterizes the semantic relations of natural language.

Natural language provides significant data that reveal some aspects of indirect negation and

negative reasoning. Consider in this connection the following Japanese usage of *-gai*, which is a grammatical marker whose original meaning is 'outside'. Its basic usage can be illustrated in the following example:

- (1) Kodomo-tati wa oku-gai de asonde ita.
children TOP house-outside at play be-PAST
'The children were playing outdoors.'

The grammatical marker *-gai* here is literally used as a spatial term designating the physical domain which is outside of a given bounded space in the external world. In these examples, *-gai* co-occurs with such spatial terms as designating a bounded space.

It is interesting to note that the same marker can co-occur with non-spatial terms. In (2), for example, it is used to modify abstract nouns such as *senmon* 'one's line', *kengen* 'authority':

- (2) a. Kore wa watasi no senmon-gai de aru.
this TOP me GEN line-outside COP be-PRES
'This is {out of my line/not in my line}.'
b. Kare wa kengen-gai no kooi o sita.
he TOP authority-outside GEN act ACC do-PAST
'He did an act in excess of his authority.'

These nouns (*senmon*, *kengen*) literally represent abstract concepts, which are metaphorically extended to designate abstract spaces; i.e. they are metaphorically construed as representing some abstract bounded domains.

What does it mean to be in such bounded domains? Being in domains of this kind means that such states of affairs as *senmon (de aru)* '(be) one's specialty', *kengen (ga aru)* '(having) authority', etc. generally hold true. In contrast, being outside such domains implies that such states of affairs do not hold true. The spatial term *-gai* which modifies *senmon*, *kengen*, etc. in (2) above, therefore, pragmatically functions as an indirect negative marker to imply the contradictory of the sentences without that marker. That this is basically the case can be supported by the following examples:

- (3) a. Kore wa watasi no senmon de wa nai.
this TOP me GEN specialty COP TOP not
'This is not my specialty.'
b. Kare wa zibun ni kengen ga nai kooi o sita.
he TOP self DAT authority NOM not act ACC do-PAST
'He did an act which he was not authorized to perform.'

The negative sentences in (3a-b) are rough paraphrases of those sentences in (2a-b). The former sentences, however, are not strictly equivalent to the latter. ©Those sentences in (2) are

pragmatically more indirect and more periphrastic than the corresponding overt negative sentences in (3).

The disappearance of objects from our perceptual field can be metaphorically taken to mean 'failure to understand'. (This is a natural consequence of the nature of our conceptual system which reflects one of the conventional metaphors SEEING IS UNDERSTANDING.) Now, this kind of perceptual experience has led us to come up with such indirect negative expressions as (4):

- (4) Kono sigoto wa boku no nooryoku o koete iru.
this job TOP me GEN competence ACC exceed be-PRES
'This job exceeds my competence.'

The verb *koeru* 'go beyond' is one of the typical motion verbs in Japanese. The usage of this verb has been extended. It co-occurs with abstract nouns such as *rikai* 'comprehension', *nooryoku* 'competence', *gaman* 'patience' etc., which metaphorically represent some abstract domains of cognitive capacities. The sentence in (4) can be taken to be an indirect negative expression in that it can roughly be paraphrased into that in (5):

- (5) Kono sigoto wa boku ni wa deki-nai.
Such task TOP me DAT TOP do-can-not
'I cannot carry out such a task.'

Indirect negative of this kind can also be found in English. The examples include: *His conduct was {above/beyond} reproach*, *The lecture is {above/ beyond} my understanding*, *His behavior is {above/beyond} praise*, ① *She is past hope of recovery*, *His remark is {past/beyond} endurance*. Other examples abound: *She is honest and above bribery*, *She is not above deceiving others to get his way*. In these cases, the basic usage of spatial prepositions (e.g. *above*, *beyond*, *past*) is extended to co-occur with abstract nouns designating mental capacities and gerundive noun phrases designating mental and social activities.

(出典 : Yamanashi, Masa-aki (2000) "Negative Inference, Space Construal, and Grammaticalization," *Negation and Polarity: Syntactic and Semantic Perspectives* より一部改変)

問1 下線部(A)について、あなたが知っていることを、具体例とともに示しなさい。

その具体例は、日本語でも、あなたの母語でも構わないが、日本語以外の事例である場合は、例文(1)~(5)の例示の仕方にならって、英語での翻訳(translation)と注釈(gloss)も付けなさい。

問2 下線部(B)について、あなたが知っていることを、具体例とともに示しなさい。

その具体例は、日本語でも、あなたの母語でも構わないが、日本語以外の事例である場合は、例文(1)~(5)の例示の仕方にならって、英語での翻訳(translation)と注釈(gloss)も付けなさい。

問3 下線部(C)はどうか。本文に即して、日本語で説明しなさい。

問4 下線部(D)を、not を用いて、英語で書き換えなさい。

問5 本文で指摘されている事例以外で、空間表現から否定表現へと文法化を遂げていると考えられる具体例を1つ挙げなさい。その具体例は、日本語でも、あなたの母語でも構わないが、日本語以外の事例である場合は、例文(1)~(5)の例示の仕方にならって、英語での翻訳(translation)と注釈(gloss)も付けなさい。

問題 7

次の文章を読んで後の問いに答えなさい。

In interrogative sentences like *Which way did you go?*, the sentence-initial *wh*-constituent is moved from a position inside the sentence. Moved constituents leave copies to ensure that the relations they have with various constituents in the sentence can remain encoded. For instance, when a direct object NP is moved to the sentence-initial position, its copy in the VP allows us to establish the thematic relation with the verb, while the pronounced copy in the initial position specifies the scope of the question. This motivation for copies is theoretical or conceptual. It follows from the way we set up our theory. (A) We assume that the syntactic structure of a sentence maps onto its interpretation, and that there is a direct correlation with the form of the sentence and its interpretation.

In the discussion of the movement of the subject we provided some empirical evidence for our movement hypothesis. One type of evidence was provided by sentences in which (part of) the subject had been stranded in a lower position, giving rise to (B) a discontinuous constituent. Consider the following pair:

- (1) a. All the customers in the corner will order their drinks before the meal.
b. The customers in the corner will all order their drinks before the meal.

We have assumed that the subject originates from a VP-internal position. Under that assumption, we have analyzed the form in (1b) as being derived by moving only *the customers in the corner* to the subject position, as shown in (2):

- (2) [IP ___ [will [VP [NP all the customers in the corner][V' order their drinks]]]]
→ [IP [the customers in the corner] [will [VP [NP all the customers in the corner]
[V' order their drinks]]]]

Would there be any similar empirical support for the hypothesis that moved constituents leave copies? Consider the two formulations of Mrs. Pettigrew's question in the following extract. Identify the object of the verb *mean* in both formulations. In what way could such an example be relevant for the theory of movement that we have been elaborating here?

- (3) "What do you mean by that exactly?", said Mrs. Pettigrew, "What exactly do you mean?" (Muriel Spark, *Memento Mori*, 1977: 81)

The two formulations of Mrs. Pettigrew's question are very similar:

- (4) a. What exactly do you mean?
b. What do you mean exactly?

In (4a), the object of *mean* is *what exactly*, an interrogative constituent or a *wh*-constituent. This *wh*-constituent occupies an initial position. We analyze (4a) as an instantiation of leftward movement: we have displaced the *wh*-constituent *what exactly* from the complement position of the verb *mean* to the specifier position of the projection CP. The fact that the string can be moved suggests that *what exactly* is a constituent.

(4) c. [CP What exactly [C' [C do] [IP you [PRESENT] [VP you mean ~~what exactly~~]]]]?

In the alternative formulation of the question we find a discontinuous constituent *what . . . exactly*. The direct object NP of *mean* is split up: its interrogative component, *what*, is moved to SpecCP and is separated from *exactly*. The two variants of the sentence seem to have the same interpretation. (c) We can relate the derivation of the two variants if we assume that in (4b) the moved interrogative pronoun *what* and the adverb *exactly* are first merged as one constituent and then movement of *what* strands the adverb *exactly*. In (4d) *exactly* is represented as a residue of the moved constituent.

(4) d. [CP What [C' [C do] [IP you [PRESENT] [VP you mean [~~what exactly~~]]]]]?

McCloskey (2000) provides the West Ulster English examples in (5). Identify the objects of the underlined verbs. How do we derive the word order in these questions? Let us represent the structure of the examples, using labeled bracketing and indicating non-pronounced copies of moved constituents by strikethrough:

- (5) a. What all did you get for Christmas?
b. Who all did you meet when you were in Derry?

Based on the discussion so far, we would provide the representations in (6):

- (6) a. [CP [NP What all] [C' [C did] [IP you [I -ed] [VP you get [NP ~~what all~~] for Christmas]]]]?
b. [CP [NP Who all] [C' [C did] [IP you [I -ed] [VP you meet [NP ~~who all~~] when you were in Derry]]]]?

McCloskey (2000: 58) reports that West Ulster English usage offers some interesting variants of the sentences above:

In addition to [5], though, West Ulster English allows [7]:

- [7] a. What did you get all for Christmas?
b. Who did you meet all when you were in Derry?

The quantifier *all* in [7a, b] is construed with the interrogative pronoun. That is, the examples in [7] are synonymous (completely so, as far as I have been able to tell) with those in [5].

Using the examples in (5) as a starting point, how would you represent the alternative formulations for the questions as given in (7)? How do these examples bear on our current discussion?

Once again, it seems plausible that *what* . . . *all* in (7a) and *who* . . . *all* in (7b) are discontinuous constituents. While the interrogative pronouns *what* and *who* have moved to the specifier of CP, the associated quantifier *all* has been stranded in the base position. The floated quantifier would then signal the base position of the object.

- (8) a. [CP What [C' [C did] [IP you [I -ed] [VP you get [~~what~~ all] for Christmas]]]]?
b. [CP Who [C' [C did] [IP you [I -ed] [VP you meet [~~who~~ all] when you were in Darry]]]]?

(出典 : Haegeman, Liliane (2006) *Thinking Syntactically*, Blackwell Publishing より一部改変)

問 1 下線部(A)を日本語に直しなさい。

問 2 下線部(B)の discontinuous constituent とはどのような構成素を言うのか、日本語で説明しなさい。さらに、あなたの母語で、この discontinuous constituent に該当すると思われる言語表現の例をあげなさい (日本語以外の例を挙げる場合は、日本語訳もつけること)。

問 3 本文で述べられていることにあうように、例文(4b)の意味を日本語で書きなさい。

問 4 下線部(C)を日本語に直しなさい。

問 5 本文で述べられている現象について、次の(1c)、(2c)のような例も文法的であり、それぞれの(a)、(b)と同じ意味を表すとされている。このような例は wh 移動についてどのようなことを意味すると考えられるか、自分の意見を日本語で述べなさい。

- (1) a. What exactly did he say that he wanted?
b. What did he say that he wanted exactly?
c. What did he say exactly that he wanted? (Standard English の例)
- (2) a. What all did he say (that) he wanted?
b. What did he say (that) he wanted all?
c. What did he say all (that) he wanted? (West Ulster English の例)

問題 8

次の文章は、接辞付加に課される制限について論じたものである。これを読んで、以下の問いに答えなさい。

One of the major problems for the linguist who is trying to give a description of some morphological process is to state, in a coherent way, just what bases may be used in the process. Normally only a limited number of bases, defined by phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic criteria, are available for any given process. (A) It is perhaps worth illustrating briefly the kinds of ways in which the bases available for certain morphological processes may be restricted. The particular examples chosen are random, illustrating a range of kinds of restriction.

In German the suffix *-tum* is now only productive with bases which denote people. Forms such as *Abenteuerertum* 'the collection of adventurers', *Bürokratentum* 'the collection of bureaucrats', *Ignorantentum* 'the collection of ignoramuses', *Sklaventum* 'the collection of slaves' and so on are found but forms, such as *Altertum* 'antiquity' and *Besitztum* 'property', are lexicalised relics, no longer possible formations today. This, then, is a case where there is a semantic restriction on the type of base that is used for this affixation process.

In English, the inflectional suffixes *-s* and *-ing* can be added to virtually all verbs except modal verbs. The few exceptions (such as *beware* and *quoth*) must be specially marked and genuinely prevent the claim of full productivity for these affixes. Modal verbs are frequently defined in terms of this aberrant morphological marking but can also be defined in terms of syntactic criteria (they are followed by a verb in the stem form without *to*, they are always the first verb in the verb group and so on). Here, there is a limitation on the bases which are available for these particular affixation processes and that limitation can be expressed in syntactic terms.

In Russian, the suffix *-ant* can be used to create new words (that is, it is a Russian suffix, it does not just appear in the borrowed words where it originated) but the base to which the suffix is attached must be a foreign base. The following are examples of Russian-coined words using the suffix:

- (1) *kurs* 'course' *kursant* 'student'
 diversija 'sabotage' *diversant* 'saboteur'
 spekuljatsija 'speculation' *spekuljant* 'speculator'

Whether a base is foreign or native is ultimately an etymological question but it acts synchronically in the same kind of way as declension or conjugation class operates, that is as a morphological feature. This, therefore, is an instance of a morphological restriction on the set of bases available for this affixation process.

In Turkish there is a suffix *-de-* (*-da-* depending on vowel harmony) which is added only to onomatopoeic words ending in /r/ or /l/ to form verbs from imitative words. Some examples are given below, with the final *-mek* (*-mak*) marking the infinitive of the verb.

- | | | |
|-----|-------------------------|---------------------------------|
| (2) | <i>gicir</i> 'creak!' | <i>gicir-da-mak</i> 'to creak' |
| | <i>hiril</i> 'growl!' | <i>hiril-da-mak</i> 'to growl' |
| | <i>horul</i> 'snore!' | <i>horul-da-mak</i> 'to snore' |
| | <i>kütür</i> 'crunch!' | <i>kütür-de-mek</i> 'to crunch' |
| | <i>takar</i> 'tap tap!' | <i>takar-da-mak</i> 'to tap' |

Here, there are two types of restriction on the bases available for the process. The first is a semantic one, in that the base must be an onomatopoeic word; the second is a phonological one, in that the segments that the base may end in are specified.

The most common kinds of restrictions on bases are those which specify the part of speech of the base or, for inflectional endings, the declension or conjugation class of the base. (B) These are so common as to require no exemplification: examples can easily be found from English, German, Latin and so on.

The fact that there are so many different possible types of restriction on bases available for morphological processes is just one of the reasons why it is so difficult to say how productive a particular process is. Consider two possible definitions of full productivity, one of which is much wider than the other:

- (3) a. A process is said to be fully productive if it applies to every possible bases and those bases are defined solely in terms of their part of speech (noun, verb, adjective).
- b. A process is said to be fully productive if it applies to every relevant base, defined in terms of a number of specific restrictions of types that have been illustrated above.

(c) Of these, (3a) demands much more of full productivity than (3b) and is correspondingly far less frequently found. Strangely enough, it is (3a) that is usually understood as a definition of productivity in the literature and this is partly why productivity has become the issue it is today.

(出典 Bauer, Laurie (2003) *Introducing linguistic morphology*, 2nd edition, Georgetown University Press, Washington, DC. [一部改変])

問 1. 下線部 (A) に関して本文で挙げられている 4 つの事例を各 2 行程度の日本語で要約しなさい。

問 2. 下線部 (B) の事例を任意の言語から 1 つ挙げ、日本語で説明しなさい。

問 3. 下線部 (C) は具体的にどのようなことを意味しているか、本文に即して日本語で説明しなさい。

問 4. 以下は接尾辞 *-en* によって派生された英語の動詞である。これをデータとし、*-en* による動詞派生にはいかなる制限が課されていると考えられるか、本文を参考にして仮説を立て、日本語で答えなさい。

blacken	deaden	harden
brighten	deafen	lengthen
broaden	fatten	lessen
cheapen	flatten	lighten
loosen	roughen	strengthen
madden	sadden	sweeten
moisten	shorten	thicken
quicken	sicken	tighten
quieten	slacken	weaken
redden	soften	whiten
ripen	straighten	widen

平成27年度実施
東北大学大学院情報科学研究科
博士課程前期入学試験問題
(2016年3月2日)

共通外国語科目 第5群
(英語)

- 試験終了後、答案用紙に加えて、この問題冊子も回収する。

問題

次の英文を読み、以下の問いに答えなさい。

Who would have predicted that English would cease to be an “English” language? Before 1600 the idea that English might be a world language was not seriously considered because it was thought to have too many flaws. (A)By comparison with classical Latin, English was in many respects stylistically limited. Furthermore, its use was confined to England and therefore its utility as the lingua franca of science and technology that it was to claim in later centuries was at this stage doubtful. Now that English is so well established as a discipline, we tend to forget that even as late as the nineteenth century it was not recognized as a legitimate subject. It would take some centuries before people were confident enough about English to deem it worthy of study.

Sir Thomas Bodley (1545-1613), founder of Oxford University’s Bodleian Library, one of the oldest libraries in Europe, would not allow works of English literature in it, dismissing them as “idle books and riffe raffes” at a time when only books in Latin, and a few books in the vernacular languages of Europe such as Italian, were thought to be serious. Knowledge of English was virtually useless in traveling abroad in Bodley’s time. (B)As a diplomat, Bodley was well versed in many of the modern languages of his day, in addition, of course, to Greek and Latin, and also Hebrew, which he had studied in Geneva at the age of twelve. Nowadays, one can go practically anywhere in the world and hear English spoken. The language of the “global village” is indeed English.

In fact, it was in the last few years of Bodley’s lifetime that English took its first significant steps toward becoming a world language, with the first permanent English settlement in North America established at Jamestown, Virginia, in 1607. Around that time, Crystal (1995: 92) estimates, the number of mother-tongue English speakers, almost all of them living within the British Isles, was between five and seven million. However, (C)between the reigns of Queen Elizabeth I (1558) and Queen Elizabeth II (1952), the number increased by almost fifty times to about 150 million, the majority of whom (around four-fifths) lived outside the British Isles. Most of these new speakers were, and continue to be, North Americans. In the same year as the American Revolution ended in 1783, another revolution of a different type was beginning in England. James Watt’s invention of the steam engine launched the Industrial Revolution. Even after its loss of the American colonies, England dominated the world during the nineteenth century in what was still an age of exploration and discovery. By this time, however, center stage had shifted to the Pacific rather than the Atlantic. James Cook’s three voyages put much of the remaining New World on to European maps and opened the way for further colonial expansion and settlement. This brought the English language to the southern hemisphere, where

it became established in places such as South Africa, India, Australia, and New Zealand.

Certainly, there had been other languages of empires propelled to far-flung colonial outposts. However, even at the height of the Roman Empire, Latin, with which English is often compared, did not spread this far. To be sure, it played an enormous role in the world of European learning until quite recently, but no other language has enjoyed the success or popularity of English. Other European languages such as Spanish and French also have a global reach due to colonization. (D) What has made the difference for English? As the world's economy has shifted from an industrial base to one based on exchange of information, the globalizing new world order is founded on communications technology, which underlies the linking of national economies. Hence the role of language and communication is destined to play a more critical part than ever before.

Technological innovations of the late nineteenth and twentieth centuries such as the telegraph, telephone, film, radio, television, and computer would spread English even further without the necessity of travel and conquest. Because the technology facilitating these developments originated largely in the English-speaking world, English is at the leading edge of global scientific and economic development. The internet has also become increasingly important in the spread of English, due to the fact that computer hardware and software was developed primarily by English speakers who tailored it to English. Until 1995 it was difficult to communicate via the internet in any language that could not be expressed in the standard English alphabet as defined by the American Standard Code for Information Exchange (ASCII), set down in 1982. As much as 80 percent of the information stored in the world's computers is in English and 90 percent of the world's computers connected to the internet are located in English-speaking countries.

Crystal (1997) estimates that 85 percent of international organizations use English as one of their working languages, among them the United Nations and its subsidiary organs. French is the only real rival to English in this arena and it has been continually losing ground. English has also surpassed German, the most important international language of science until World War I, particularly in the hard sciences such as physics, chemistry, etc. Books in the English language have dominated the publishing business. English is now the most widely used language in publication, with over 28 percent of the world's books printed in English and over 60 countries publishing books in English. English is also the language of international air traffic control and the basis for Seaspeak, used in international maritime communication. Today English is the dominant or official language in over sixty countries. It is represented on every continent and in the three major oceans, Atlantic, Pacific, and Indian (Crystal 1995: 106).

※出典: Romaine, Suzanne (2006) "Global English: From Island Tongue to World Language," *The Handbook of the History of English*, ed. by Ans van Kemenade and Bettelou Los, Blackwell Publishing, Malden, MA. [一部改変]

問1. 下線部 (A) を日本語に訳しなさい。

問2. 下線部 (B) を日本語に訳しなさい。

問3. 下線部 (C) の変化の歴史的背景として述べられていることを6行程度の日本語で要約しなさい。

問4. 下線部 (D) の問いに対しどのような説明が与えられているか。日本語で述べなさい。

問5. この文章全体で論じられていることについて、自分の研究課題(これまでのものでもよいし、これからのものでもよい)との関連で何らかの論点を立て、10行程度の英語で論じなさい。