卒業プロの友

その1

研究のはじめかた

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「卒業プロジェクト1」

指定教材

目次

第 1 巻　研究の始め方

Unit 1　Course orientation 1
この授業の目的 1
修士課程の方へ 1
この冊子の使い方 2
スケジュール 3

Unit 2　Imagining Your Projects 4
2.1　How researchers think about their projects 4
TQS: How to identify a worthwhile research question 6
Topic: “I am working on the topic of …” 6
Question: “… because I want to find out how or why …” 8
Significance/So what: “… so that I can help others understand how or why…” 8
2.2　Conversing with your readers 10
課題１：自分研究に応用する 12
課題２：ビデオ視聴 14

Unit 3　Data and Previous Literature 16
3.1　Three kinds of sources and their uses 16
Consult primary sources for evidence 16
Read secondary sources to learn from other researchers 18
Read tertiary sources for introductory overviews 20
3.2　Search for sources systematically 22
Ask a librarian 22
Consult reference works 22
Search your library catalog 24
Explore online resources 24
課題３：ビデオ視聴 25
課題４：自分の文献リストを作る 34

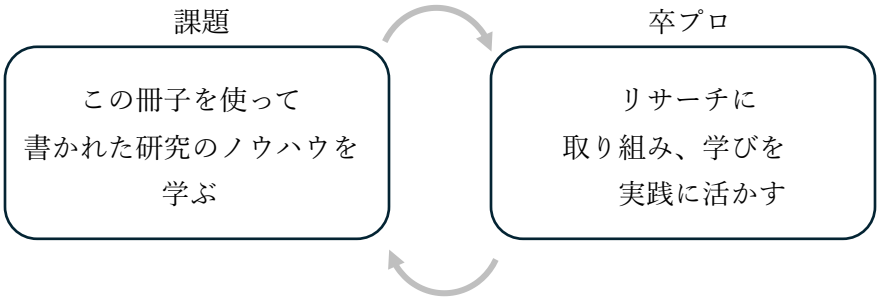
Unit 4　Notetaking 35
先行研究を整理する 35
先行研究を整理する 36
参考資料：おまけ 37

Unit 1　Course orientation

この授業の目的

この授業の目的は、1 年間かけて行う卒業プロジェクトの「前半」を、学生が無事に乗り越えられるように、アシストを行うことである。

入学時期などによって、この「卒業プロジェクト 1 」を取る時期は異なるが、おおむね次のようなスケジュールで進めていく。それ以降の具体的な論文の執筆については、次の学期で扱う。



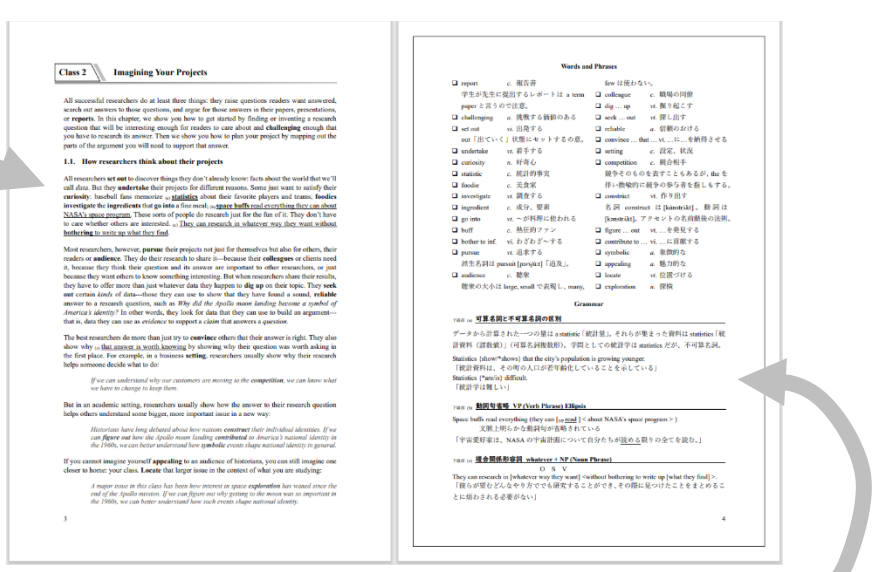
修士課程の方へ

修士の方は、1 年目と 2 年目で基本的に同じ講義を二回取ってもらいます。これは、一巡目で理解できることと、一度体験し終わった際に見えてくるものが、また違ってくるからです。修士 1 年生の方は、できるだけ幅広い分野の知識を得るために、修士論文で扱おうと思っているトピックが決まっていても、せっかくなので、別のトピックにチャレンジをしてみることをお勧めします。修士論文のテーマについては、ぜひ 2 年目の時に改めて相談しましょう。

この冊子の使い方

左ページ

この冊子は見開きでひとまとまりとなっています。左ページが、研究とは何か、どのようなところに落とし穴があるのかということを詳しく論じた文章です。



右ページ

英語が苦手な人もいるかもしれないので、左ページの英文を読むためのガイドや論文作成時のお役立ちヒントを載せています。

Words and Phrases

内容の理解にウェイトを置いてほしいので、太字の単語のその文脈での意味を簡単に示しています（仮に知らない単語があれば、必ず覚えてくださいね）。

Grammar

読むのに苦労する人がでるかもしれない下線部が引かれた文については、その文を理解する上で必要な文法や語法を解説しました。中学・高校時代に習っているはずの項目かなと思いますので、解説自体は簡潔なものにとどめています。あやふやなものがあれば、受験の際に使った参考書や文法書で必ず確認してくださいね。

スケジュール

オンデマンド授業： 4 回（学期が始まる前に視聴を終える※課題文を読んでから視聴）
教員との面談： 3 回（それ以外でも実施してもよいが、最低下記の時には相談）
進捗報告会： 6 回（2 週間に一回、他の卒プロメンバーと進捗報告）
発表会： 2 回

基本的に自分のペースで受講を進めてください。ただし、ペースメーカーとして、下記の表を念頭にプロジェクトを進めてください。

	第 2 講 オンデマンド Unit2	第 3 講 オンデマンド Unit 3	第 4 講 教員との面談 先行研究リスト提出	第 5 講 オンデマンド Unit 4
春学期：	3 月 15 日頃	3 月 22 日頃	3 月 29 日頃	4 月第 1 週
秋学期：	9 月 15 日頃	9 月 22 日頃	9 月 29 日頃	10 月第 1 週

	第 6 講 進捗報告会	第 7 講 進捗報告会	第 8 講 進捗報告会	第 9 講 教員との面談
春学期：	4 月第 4 週	5 月第 2 週	5 月第 4 週	6 月第 1 週
秋学期：	10 月第 4 週	11 月第 2 週	11 月第 4 週	12 月第 1 週

	第 10 講 進捗報告会	第 11 講 進捗報告会	第 12 講 進捗報告会	第 13 講 教員との面談
春学期：	6 月第 2 週	6 月第 4 週	7 月第 2 週	7 月第 3 週
秋学期：	12 月第 2 週	12 月第 4 週	1 月第 2 週	1 月第 3 週

	第 14 講 発表会1	第 15 講 発表会2(特プロ内)
春学期：	7 月第 4 週	夏季特プロ内
秋学期：	1 月第 4 週	冬季特プロ内

Unit 2 Imagining Your Projects

All successful researchers do at least three things: they raise questions readers want answered, search out answers to those questions, and argue for those answers in their papers, presentations, or **reports**. In this chapter, we show you how to get started by finding or inventing a research question that will be interesting enough for readers to care about and **challenging** enough that you have to research its answer. Then we show you how to plan your project by mapping out the parts of the argument you will need to support that answer.

2.1 How researchers think about their projects

All researchers **set out** to discover things they don't already know: facts about the world that we'll call *data*. But they **undertake** their projects for different reasons. Some just want to satisfy their **curiosity**: baseball fans memorize (a) **statistics** about their favorite players and teams; **foodies investigate** the **ingredients** that **go into** a fine meal; (b) space **buffs** read everything they can about NASA's space program. These sorts of people do research just for the fun of it. They don't have to care whether others are interested. (c) They can research in whatever way they want without **bothering** to write up what they find.

Most researchers, however, **pursue** their projects not just for themselves but also for others, their readers or **audience**. They do their research to share it—because their **colleagues** or clients need it, because they think their question and its answer are important to other researchers, or just because they want others to know something interesting. But when researchers share their results, they have to offer more than just whatever data they happen to **dig up** on their topic. They **seek out** certain *kinds* of data—those they can use to show that they have found a sound, **reliable** answer to a research question, such as *Why did the Apollo moon landing become a symbol of America's identity?* In other words, they look for data that they can use to build an argument—that is, data they can use as *evidence* to support a *claim* that answers a *question*.

The best researchers do more than just try to **convince** others that their answer is right. They also show why (c) that answer is worth knowing by showing why their question was worth asking in the first place. For example, in a business **setting**, researchers usually show why their research helps someone decide what to do:

> *If we can understand why our customers are moving to the **competition**, we can know what we have to change to keep them.*

But in an academic setting, researchers usually show how the answer to their research question helps others understand some bigger, more important issue in a new way:

> *Historians have long debated about how nations **construct** their individual identities. If we can **figure out** how the Apollo moon landing **contributed** to America's national identity in the 1960s, we can better understand how **symbolic** events shape national identity in general.*

If you cannot imagine yourself **appealing** to an audience of historians, you can still imagine one closer to home: your class. **Locate** that larger issue in the context of what you are studying:

> *A major issue in this class has been how interest in space **exploration** has **waned** since the end of the Apollo mission. If we can figure out why getting to the moon was so important in the 1960s, we can better understand how such events shape national identity.*

Words and Phrases

- ❑ report *n.* 報告書
  学生が先生に提出するレポートは a term paper と言うので注意。
- ❑ challenging *a.* 挑戦する価値のある
- ❑ set out *vi.* 出発する
  out「出ていく」状態にセットするの意。
- ❑ undertake *vt.* O に着手する
- ❑ curiosity *n.* 好奇心
- ❑ statistic *n.* 統計的事実
- ❑ foodie *n.* 美食家
- ❑ investigate *vt.* O を調査する
- ❑ ingredient *n.* 成分、要素
- ❑ go into *vt.* O が料理に使われる
- ❑ buff *n.* 熱狂的ファン
- ❑ bother to inf. *vi.* わざわざ～する
- ❑ pursue *vt.* O を追求する
  派生名詞は pursuit [pərsjú:t]「追及」。
- ❑ audience *n.* 聴衆
  大小は large, small で表現（×many, few）。
- ❑ colleague *n.* 職場の同僚
- ❑ dig … up *vt.* O を掘り起こす
- ❑ seek … out *vt.* O を探し出す
- ❑ reliable *a.* 信頼のおける
- ❑ convince O that … *vt.* O に…を納得させる
- ❑ setting *n.* 設定、状況
- ❑ competition *n.* 競合相手
  競争そのものを表すこともあるが、the を伴い換喩的に競争の参与者を指しもする。
- ❑ constrúct *vt.* O を作り出す
  名詞 construct は [kánstrʌ̀kt]。動詞は [kənstrʌ́kt]。アクセントの名前動後の法則。
- ❑ figure … out *vt.* O を発見する
- ❑ contribute to *vi.* ～に貢献する
- ❑ symbolic *a.* 象徴的な
- ❑ appealing *a.* 魅力的な
- ❑ locate *vt.* O を位置づける
- ❑ exploration *n.* 探検
- ❑ wane *vi.* （徐々に）弱まる

Grammar

下線部 (a) 可算名詞と不可算名詞の区別

データから計算された一つの量は a statistic「統計量」。それらが集まった資料は statistics「統計資料（諸数値）」（可算名詞複数形）。学問としての統計学は statistics だが、不可算名詞。

Statistics {show/*shows} that the city's population is growing younger.
「統計資料は、その町の人口が若年齢化していることを示している」
Statistics {*are/is} difficult.
「統計学は難しい」

下線部 (b) 動詞句省略 VP (Verb Phrase) Ellipsis

Space buffs read everything (they can [$_{VP}$ read] < about NASA's space program >)
　　文脈上明らかな動詞句が省略されている
「宇宙愛好家は、NASA の宇宙計画について自分たちが読める限りの全てを読む。」

下線部 (c) 名詞節を作る複合関係形容詞 whatever + NP (Noun Phrase)

　　O　S　V
They can research in [whatever way they want] <without bothering to write up [what they find] >.
「彼らが望むどんなやり方ででも研究することができ、その際に見つけたことをまとめることに煩わされる必要がない」

(d) You can find out whether your question is **worthwhile** by describing your project in a sentence like this one:

Topic:	I am working on stories about the Apollo mission to the moon,
Question:	because I want to find out why it was deemed so important in the 1960s,
Significance:	so that I can help my classmates understand the role of symbolic events in shaping national identity.

In its second and third parts, this sentence takes you beyond a **mere** topic to state a question *and* its importance to readers.

When you state why your research question is important to your readers, you turn it into a *research problem*. A research problem is simply a question whose answer is needed by **specific** readers—your audience—because without it they will **suffer** a cost. That cost is what transforms a question that is **merely** interesting to you into one that you can expect others to care about.

TQS: How to identify a worthwhile research question

You can help yourself think about your project by describing it in a three-step sentence that states your Topic + Question + **Significance** (or TQS):

TOPIC: I am working on the topic of _____,
QUESTION: because I want to find out _____,
SIGNIFICANCE: so that I can help others understand _____.

Don't worry if you cannot at first state your question's significance. As you do your research and develop your answer, you'll find ways to explain why your question is worth asking.

Note: The TQS **formula** is **intended** only to guide your thinking. Use it to test and **refine** your question, but don't plan to use it in your paper in exactly this form. In your introduction you will use the information from each part of this TQS sentence but not the sentence itself.

(e) That three-step TQS sentence is worth a closer look because your project's success will depend on your ability to discover or invent a good research question.

Topic: "I am working on the topic of …"

Researchers often begin with just a topic, something that **sparks** their curiosity, such as *the Apollo mission*. But if you stop there, you've got problems. Even a focused topic is a poor guide to your work, because a topic alone gives you no principled way to decide what data to look for or, once you have them, which data to use in your paper and which to discard. When that happens, students often run into trouble, producing a *data **dump***. They **dump** everything into a paper that reads like a **grab bag** of **barely** connected facts. Most readers quickly become bored, asking, *Why are you telling me this?* They might **read on** if they are already interested in the topic, but even those readers will want to know: *What do these facts **add up** to?*

Words and Phrases

- ❑ worthwhile　*a.* 時間をかける価値のある
- ❑ mere　*a.* 単なる
- ❑ specific　*a.* 特定の
- ❑ suffer　*vi.* 苦しむ
- ❑ suffer　*vt.* O（苦しみ）を経験する
- ❑ merely　*ad.* 単に
- ❑ significance　*n.* 意義
- ❑ formula　n. 公式
- ❑ be intended to　〜のために用意されている
- ❑ refine　*vt.* O を洗練させる
- ❑ spark　*vt.* O を引き起こす
- ❑ dump　*n.* ゴミ捨て場
- ❑ dump　*vt.* O を投棄する
- ❑ grab bag　*c.* 雑多なものの寄せ集め
- ❑ barely　*ad.* ほとんど〜ない
- ❑ read on　*vi.* 読み続ける
  この on は継続を表す（例：go on）
- ❑ add up to　合計が〜になる、結局〜になる

Grammar

下線部 (e) worth の語法

叙述用法の形容詞として使われるものの後ろに名詞を引き連れる（前置詞のような言葉）。

名詞：　The book is worth $1,000,000.　「その本は 100 万ドルの価値がある」
動名詞：　The book is worth reading.　「その本は読む価値がある」

動名詞の場合、他動詞の目的語が必ず欠落する。

○The book is worth reading.　「その本は読む価値がある」
×The book is worth reading it.　「その本は読む価値がある」

下線部 (d) worthwhile の語法

while は昔の英語で「時間 (time)」という意味で使われていた。そこで、worth の後ろの位置にこれを置き、「時間をかける価値のある」という言葉となる。

Reading the book is worthwhile.　「その本は読む価値がある」
It is worthwhile reading the book.「その本は読む価値がある」

To read the book is worthwhile.　「その本は読む価値がある」
It is worthwhile to read the book.「その本は読む価値がある」

下線部 (e) 名詞句内の名詞の複数形

名詞句の中では、名詞は複数形の *-s* を取ることができない。

○ He is a three-**year**-old boy.
× He is a three-**years**-old boy.

形容詞句の中では、複数形表示を取ることが可能。

The boy is three years old.

Question: "… because I want to find out how or why …"

More **experienced** researchers begin not just with a topic but with a research question, such as *Why was the Apollo mission to the moon important to America's national identity*? You may have to do some **preliminary** reading about your topic to come up with a question, but in every research project, **formulating** that question is a **crucial** early step. Experienced researchers know that readers will think their data add up to something only when they **serve** as evidence to support an answer. (f) Only with a question can a researcher know what data to look for and, once **obtained**, what to keep—and not just data that support a **particular** answer but also data that test or **discredit** it. As we'll see later, with sufficient evidence to support an answer, a researcher can respond to data that seem to **contradict** it. In writing a paper, the researcher tests that answer and invites others to test it too.

Significance/So what: "… so that I can help others understand how or why …"

Experienced researchers also know that readers won't be interested in just any research question. Readers want to know not just your answer but also why that answer is worth knowing. So expect your readers to **respond to** your question with one of their own: *So what?* Think of it this way: What will be lost if you don't answer your question? Maybe nothing: you just want to know. That's good enough to start but not to finish, because eventually your readers will want an answer beyond *Just **curious***.

All questions, **in short**, are not equally good. For example, you could ask the question *Who was taller, Neil Armstrong or Buzz Aldrin?* But (g) you would have trouble answering *So what?* to the **satisfaction** of any but the most **fanatical NASAphiles**. Readers ask *So what?* about all research questions, not just the **off-the-wall** ones. If you ask the question *Why was the Apollo moon landing a symbol of America's national identity?*, you should also expect readers to ask in turn: *So what? Why should I care about that?* But this time you can **justify** your question by pointing out the significance of its answer: *If we can answer that question about the Apollo mission, we might better understand the bigger issue of how such events in general shape national identity.* Readers care about a question only when its answer makes them say *That's worth knowing!*

Of course, professional researchers have a big advantage: they already know what questions their readers care about. Students, especially beginners, usually have less to go on. So don't worry if at first you cannot find some great significance to your research question. Keep hunting for a good *So what?*, knowing that all won't be lost if you don't manage to find one. As long as you find a question that is relevant to your class, you can always explain its significance in terms of the class:

> *… so that I can help my classmates understand how such **regional myths** have shaped America's sense of a unified national identity, which has been an important issue in our study of American **diversity**.*

Words and Phrases

- ❑ experienced　*a*. 経験を積んだ
- ❑ preliminary　*a*. 予備段階の
- ❑ formulate　*vt*. O を定式化する
- ❑ crucial　*a*. 決定的な、重要な
- ❑ serve as　*vi*. ～として機能する
- ❑ obtain　*vt*. O を獲得する
- ❑ particular　*a*. 特定の
- ❑ discredit　*vt*. O の信憑性を失わせる
- ❑ contradict　*vt*. O と矛盾する
  日本語では「～と」と言うが、他動詞。
- ❑ respond to　*vi*. ～へ答える
- ❑ curious　*a*. 興味を持っている
- ❑ in short　要するに
- ❑ to the satisfaction of …　…の満足のいくように
- ❑ fanatical　*a*. 熱狂的な
- ❑ -phile　*suff*. ～が好きな人々
  -phil は[-fɪl]、-phile は[faɪl]と発音する。対義語は、-phobe「～を嫌う人々」。
- ❑ off-the-wall　*a*. 突拍子もない
- ❑ justify　*vt*. O を正当化する
- ❑ regional　*a*. （特定の）地域の
- ❑ myth　*n*. 神話
- ❑ diversity　*n*. 多様性

Grammar

下線部 (f) **倒置 Inversion**

否定的な意味を持つ要素（only「…だけ」などの語を含む）が強調され（気持ちがこもり）文頭に置かれると、疑問詞疑問文と同じように助動詞と主語の倒置が起こる。

疑問詞	Aux	S	V	O
How	can	a researcher	know	what data to look for?

否定的な意味の要素	Aux	S	V	O
< Only with a question>	can	a researcher	know	what data to look for.

「疑問文を手にしたときにだけ研究者はどんなデータを探すべきかが分かるのだ」

下線部 (g) **前置詞 but**

前置詞の but は except「～を除いて」の意味。これは、昔の英語の名残で、等位接続詞としての用法は最近になって発達したもの。all but NP の形が基本だが、ここでは、trouble が否定的な意味を持つので、any が用いられている。

You would have trouble answering *So what?* to the satisfaction of any but the most fanatical NASAphiles.
「『だから何？』という質問に満足のいく回答を出すのは、（話している相手が）熱狂的な NASA ファンでない限り、難しいでしょう」

下線部 (h) **否定辞の作用域**

この文は not がどこを否定しているのかで二通りの意味がありうるが、ここは文脈から後者。

[NOT [All will be lost]], <if you don't manage to find one>「いい研究意義を見つけられないのなら、研究の全てがダメになりはしない」

[NOT [All will be lost <if you don't manage to find one>]]「いい研究意義が見つけられないなら研究の全てがダメになる、というわけではない」

2.2 Conversing with your readers

Experienced researchers understand that **genuine** research must **matter** not only to the researcher but also to others. That is why our formula—*I am working on the topic of Z because I want to find out Y so that I can help others understand Z*—is so powerful: because it **emphasizes** that **informing** others is the real **end** of research.

(i) Whenever you read a text, you silently **converse** with its authors. The same goes for *your* readers when you are the author. But imagining and then entering into such conversations can be difficult for beginning researchers—and especially for students, who sometimes misunderstand the kind of relationship with readers they should **strive** to create. Your task as a student researcher is not simply to **rehearse** whatever facts you've **managed** to **turn up**, in order to prove to your teacher that you've learned enough to get a good grade. Doing that might be—**at best**—a useful student exercise, but it is the **opposite** of genuine research. You may, it is true, receive some **assignments** that ask you simply to **regurgitate** information. But the best assignments will do more: they will invite you to experience genuine research by imagining and contributing to a community of readers who care about your question. In such research you become a kind of teacher yourself who says to your reader (even if she is your teacher), *Here is something that will help you* ***remedy*** *a situation that troubles you* or, more typically, *Here is something that will help you better understand something you care about.* When you present your research in this way, you write for others who are open to learning from you and even to changing their minds—if you can make the case.

We now understand the goal of genuine research, at least in its pure form: it is not to have the last word, as some students **mistakenly** believe, but to keep the conversation going. The best questions are those whose answers raise several more.

There is yet another reason to think of yourself as conversing with your readers: it will **prod** you to produce a better, richer, more thoughtful argument. Imagine your readers as interested and **inquisitive** colleagues, as a community of fellow researchers and even partners who want an answer as much as you do. Imagine that conversation taking place not in a classroom but around a table. Your question **grabs** the attention of your **peers** because they recognize that they'll be **worse off** if they don't get an answer. You share not just your answer but all the information you can find that is relevant to deciding whether your answer is a good one. In sharing that information, you try to **anticipate** their questions. You are **candid** enough to **acknowledge** any information that challenges or **complicates** your answer, and you **address objections** they might have. Even so, (j) they have many more questions, **alternative** explanations, and other issues—(k) each of which you consider and address as fairly as you can.

If you can imagine your readers in this way, your paper will be better. If you think of your project in these terms, you'll make more good decisions and waste less time as you write your paper. But just as importantly, you'll be preparing yourself for the day when your readers are indeed colleagues who need from you the best answers you and they can find.

(From *Student's Guide to Writing College Papers*, By Kate L. Turabian, pp.13-17
© 2010、一部改めた箇所があります)

Words and Phrases

- ❑ genuine *a.* 本物の
- ❑ matter *vi.* S が問題となる
- ❑ emphasize *vt.* O を強調する
- ❑ inform *vt.* O に通知する
- ❑ end *n.* 目的
- ❑ converse *vi.* 会話する
- ❑ strive to V *vt.* V しようと骨を折る
- ❑ rehearse *vt.* O を詳しく話す
- ❑ manage to V *vt.* V を何とかやり遂げる
- ❑ turn O up *vt.* O を探し出す
- ❑ at best せいぜい
- ❑ opposite *n.* 正反対の人、もの
- ❑ assignment *n.* 宿題
- ❑ regurgitate *vt.* O を吐き戻す ＞O を理解しないで繰り返す
- ❑ remedy *vt.* O を改善する
- ❑ mistakenly *ad.* 誤解して
- ❑ prod O to V *vt.* O をせかせて V させる
- ❑ inquisitive *a.* 好奇心の強い
- ❑ grab *vt.* O をつかむ
- ❑ peer *n.* 専門分野が同じ仲間
- ❑ badly off *a.* 窮乏状態にある
  比較級が worse off となる形容詞。
- ❑ anticipate *vt.* O を予期する
- ❑ candid *a.* 誠実な
- ❑ acknowledge *a.* O を認める
- ❑ complicate vt. O を複雑にする
- ❑ address *vt.* O（という言葉）を発する
- ❑ objection *n.* 反対
- ❑ alternative *a.* 別の候補の

Grammar

下線部 (i) **副詞節を作る複合関係副詞 whenever**

-ever は、任意性を強調する言葉。「任意のいついかなる時点を取っても」の意味。

下線部 (g) **比較級における程度の差を表す表現**

可算名詞の場合は many を、不可算名詞の場合は much を用いる。

they have { { no / one } more question ; { two / three / ⋮ / many } more questions }

下線部 (h) **関係代名詞の pied-piping**

関係代名詞がそれ単体ではなく、of 句に入っているときその修飾対象を伴って、節頭に移動（pied-piping）することがある。

([each of which] you consider and address ^ < as fairly >)

課題 1：自分研究に応用する

本文の内容を踏まえて、現時点での自分の卒業研究の T/Q/S を（できるだけ具体的に）書いてください（Version 1 と書かれたところに現時点での回答を書いたら、課題 2 に進み、Unit 2 のビデオ群を視聴してください）。

Version 1

トピック（Topic）

リサーチクエスチョン（Research Question）

研究意義（Significance）

Version 2

トピック（Topic）

リサーチクエスチョン（Research Question）

研究意義（Significance）

課題 2 ：ビデオ視聴

Unit 2 のビデオ群を視聴してください。必要に応じて、下記の余白にメモを取ってください。

Unit 3 Data and Previous Literature

Research—**systematically seeking out** data that will help you answer a question—can take many forms, depending on the question you ask and how you try to answer it. Some researchers do experiments in **laboratories**; some observe the natural world or human behavior; some **administer surveys** or **conduct** interviews. As a student, you might do any of these kinds of research, and still others. In this chapter, however, we focus on **source**-based research, for two reasons. First, it is a kind of research that every student is asked to do. And second, because it is often the *first* kind of research that students are asked to do, it serves for many as a model for other sorts of research they may do in college and beyond.

As you develop your project, plan to do your reading in three phases. First, read just to learn enough to know what to look for. This phase won't be very systematic; it may well depend on what online search engines turn up. Second, read to get an **overview** of your topic and question. This reading will be mostly in **reference** works like **encyclopedias**. Third, search out the specific sources that you will use in developing your argument. For this phase, you'll need a careful plan.

3.1 Three kinds of sources and their uses

Beginning researchers often think of research as just finding information to put into their papers. So they **fire up** a search engine and get started. That, of course, is a wrong picture of research. In fact, one of the most common **complaints** about new researchers is that they **offer up** as evidence the first (and only) bit of relevant data they find. They assume that all evidence is the same and that one bit of evidence is enough. But all researchers—including students—are expected to consider not just *relevant* evidence but the *best available* evidence. Therefore, as you plan your research project, you have to think not just about finding *enough* sources but also about how you will *use* those sources to answer your research question and then to explain and justify your answer in your argument.

To do that, you need to know the different kinds of sources and how researchers use them. Sources are **conventionally** grouped into three categories: ***primary***, ***secondary***, and ***tertiary***. Their boundaries are **fuzzy**, but knowing these categories can help you plan and conduct your research.

Consult primary sources for evidence

Primary sources are "original" materials that provide you with the "**raw** data" you will use as evidence to develop and test your **hypothesis** and **ultimately** to support the reasons in your **argument**. In history, primary sources are **artifacts** or documents that come directly from the **period** or event you are studying: letters, diaries, objects, maps, even clothing. In **literature** of **philosophy**, your main primary source is usually the text you are analyzing, and your data are the words on the page. In arts **criticism**, your primary source would be the work of art you are interpreting. In social sciences such as sociology or political science, **census** or survey data would count as primary sources, as could data obtained through observation or experiment. In the natural sciences, reports of original research are sometimes characterized as primary sources (although scientists themselves rarely use that **term**).

Words and Phrases

- ❑ systematically *a*. 組織的に
- ❑ seek O out *vt*. O を探し出す
- ❑ laboratory *n*. 実験室
- ❑ administer *vt*. O を執り行う
- ❑ survey *n*. （アンケート）調査
- ❑ conduct *vt*. O を実施する
- ❑ source *n*. （情報の）ソース、源
- ❑ overview *n*. 概観
- ❑ reference *n*. 参考（文献）
- ❑ encyclopedia *n*. 百科事典
- ❑ fire up *vt*. O を始動させる
- ❑ complaint *n*. 不満
- ❑ offer up *vt*. O を捧げる
- ❑ conventionally *ad*. 慣習的に
- ❑ primary *a*. 第一番目の
- ❑ secondary *a*. 第二番目の
- ❑ tertiary *a*. 第三番目の
- ❑ fuzzy *a*. 不明瞭な
- ❑ raw *a*. 生の、あるがままの
- ❑ hypothesis *n*. 仮説
- ❑ ultimately *ad*. 究極的には
- ❑ argument *n*. 議論
- ❑ artifact *n*. 人工遺物
- ❑ period *n*. 時代
- ❑ philosophy *n*. 哲学
- ❑ literature *n*. 文献
- ❑ criticism *n*. 批評
- ❑ census *n*. 国勢調査
- ❑ term *n*. 専門用語

論文作成のヒント１：論文ならではの表現

ここで出てきた論文で使われやすい用語を押さえておこう。

「私たちはアンケートを実施した」

We {**administered/conducted/carried out**} a survey.

「私たちは先行研究の仮説を検証する」

We {**test/examine**} the hypotheses of the previous study.

「先行研究では…だと考えられてきた」

In {**previous studies/previous research/previous literature**}, it has been widely held that …./ **Traditionally**, researchers have treated A as B …

※ Study は可算名詞。Research や literature は不可算名詞であることに注意。このため、主語にするときには、人称の一致に気を付けること。

「先行研究は…ということを主張している」

Previous {research/literature} {×have/has} proposed that …

Previous studies {have/×has} proposed that …

「日本語の敬語の先行研究」

the {research/literature} {**on/×of**} Japanese honorifics

previous studies {×**on/of**} Japanese honorifics

※可算名詞の有無と前置詞の選択に注意。

「データから…だということが分かる」

The data {**indicates/illustrates/shows/suggests**} that ….

※ Data は不可算名詞として単数形扱いされることが多いが、複数形として使う人もいる。この著者は後者。

Read secondary sources to learn from other researchers

Secondary sources are books, **articles**, papers, or reports that are based on primary sources and **intended** for **scholarly** or professional audiences. Articles in scholarly **journals** analyzing **news coverage** of the Apollo 11 moon landing, **representations** of gender in ***Grand Theft Auto***, or how children learn languages would be secondary sources for researchers working on those topics. The best secondary sources are books from **reputable** university **presses** and articles or **papers** that have been ***peer reviewed***, meaning that they were **vetted** by experts in the field before they were **published**. Secondary sources also include **specialized** encyclopedias and dictionaries that offer essays written by scholars in a field. Secondary sources were once available mainly through college and university libraries, but now they are also available through online **catalogs** and databases including CQ Researchers, EBSCOhost, Gale Power Search, Academic One File, and many others. In addition, school libraries often have books that bundle collections of secondary sources on a topic for students.

Researchers use secondary sources for four purposes:

1. *To substitute for unavailable primary sources.* Professional researchers are generally expected to **rely on** primary sources for their data and evidence. As a student, you too should get your data and evidence from primary sources when you can. But if you can't, your teacher will probably allow you to report the data from a secondary source. Be sure to ask.

   CAUTION: Always cite the source you **consult**

   Some students think that when they use data reported in a secondary source they should cite the original, primary source. But they are only half right. If you cite just the primary source, you **imply** that you consulted that source yourself. If you cite just the secondary source, you imply that it is the **ultimate** source of your data. Both mislead readers. Instead you should cite both sources. For example, if you use a secondary source written by Anderson for primary data in an article by Wong, your **citation** would look like this (using APA style):

   (Wong, 1966, p. 45; **quoted** in Anderson, 2005, p. 19)

2. *To learn what others have written about your topic.* Secondary sources are the best way to learn what other researchers have said about your topic. (a) You can also learn from secondary sources the kinds of questions experts in the field think are important, not only from their research questions but from any **additional** questions they mention at the end of articles. You may be able to model your question on theirs or even to use a question they mention but do not address.

Words and Phrases

- ❑ article *n.* 論文
- ❑ intend *vt.* O を意図する
- ❑ scholarly *a.* 学問的な
- ❑ journal *n.* （学術）雑誌
- ❑ news coverage *n.* （様々な媒体での）ニュース報道
- ❑ representation *n.* 描写
- ❑ Grand Theft Auto *n.* アメリカなどで有名なゲーム
- ❑ reputable *n.* 評判の良い
- ❑ press *n.* 出版社
- ❑ paper *n.* 論文、レポート
- ❑ peer review *vt.* O を査読する
- ❑ vet *n.* O を診断する
- ❑ publish *n.* O を出版する
- ❑ specialize *n.* O を特殊化する
- ❑ catelog *n.* カタログ、目録
- ❑ rely on *vi.* 〜に頼る
- ❑ caution *n.* 注意
- ❑ consult *vt.* O に助言を求める
  日本語では「に格」だが、他動詞
- ❑ imply *vt.* O を示唆する
- ❑ ultimate *n.* 究極の、これ以上ない
- ❑ citation *n.* 引用
- ❑ quote *vt.* O を引用する
- ❑ additional *a.* 更なる

論文作成のヒント２：参考文献

APA は The American Psychological Association「アメリカ心理学会」のことで、社会科学の分野を中心に使われる参考文献の書き方のこと。分野ごとに使うスタイルは違うので、指導教官の人に自分の分野のスタイルを尋ねてみよう。ここでは、APA を例に書き方を紹介する。

第一に、文中で引用する際には、その参考文献の執筆者の名字と出版年を書き添える。例えば、主要な先行研究を挙げる時には、次のようになる。

> *The study of honorific pronouns has a long history, with excellent crosslinguistic surveys, such as by Brown and Gilman (1960), Head (1978), Brown and Levinson (1987), Braun (1988), Helmbrecht (2003), and Corbett (2013).*

あるいは、文の末尾に、その言及した内容の参照先を括弧に添えて表示する。

> *To begin with, consider the example below from Kambaata (Treis, 2007; Corbett, 2013).*

第二に、巻末に引用された参考文献の情報をリストの形で表示する。例えば Brown and Gilman (1960)は APA では次のように、記載される。媒体によって記載の仕方は違うので、右の QR コードのリンクで詳細は参照してほしい。

Brown, R. W., & Gilman, A. (1960). The pronouns of power and solidarity. In Thomas A. Sebeok (Ed.), *Style in language* (pp. 253-276). MIT Press.

Grammar

下線部 (a) **連鎖関係節の作り方**

You can also learn from secondary sources the kinds of questions
(which experts (in the field) think [~~which~~ are important])
S’ V’ O’ S” V” C”

3. *To find other points of view*. Beginning researchers sometimes believe they will **weaken** their case if they mention ideas that contradict their own. The truth is actually the opposite: when you acknowledge opposing views, you show readers not only that you have considered those views but also that you can respond to them. Your paper will be complete only when you imagine and respond to your readers' predictable questions and **disagreements**. You can find those in secondary sources. What alternatives to your ideas do they offer? What evidence do they cite that you must acknowledge?

   More important, you can use the arguments of others to test and improve your own. You cannot understand what you think until you know why a **rational** person might think differently. So as you search for sources, look not only for those that support your views but also for those that challenge them.

4. *To find models for your own research and writing.* You can use secondary sources to find out not just *what* others have written about your topic but also *how* they have written about it. If most of your sources use **headings**, **charts**, and lots of **bullet points**, then you might consider doing the same; if your sources never use them, you probably shouldn't. Notice things like the language (**technical** or **ordinary**?), paragraphs (long or short?), and how they use other sources (**quotation** or **paraphrase**?). Pay special attention to the kinds of evidence most of them use and the kinds of evidence they rarely or never use.

   You can also use secondary sources as models for your own argument. You cannot reuse a source's *specific* claims and reasons, but you can use the same *kind* of reasoning in your own argument, perhaps even following the same organization. So if you come across a source that's not on your exact topic but treats one like it, **skim** it to see what you can learn about how to argue your case. (You don't have to cite that source if you use only its logic, but you may cite it to give your own more **authority**.)

> QUICK TIP: You may find secondary sources hard to read because they are intended for advanced researchers. They assume a lot of background knowledge, and many aren't clearly written in the first place. If you're working on a topic new to you, don't start with secondary sources. Begin with an overview in a specialized encyclopedia or **reliable** tertiary source; then use what you learn there to **tackle** the secondary sources

Read tertiary sources for introductory overviews

Tertiary sources are books and articles that **synthesize** secondary sources for general readers. They include textbooks, encyclopedias (including Wikipedia), and dictionaries, as well as articles in publications for broad audiences, like *Time* and the *Atlantic*. In the early stages of research, you can use tertiary sources to get a broad overview of your topic. But if you are making a scholarly argument, you should rely on secondary sources because these make up the conversation in which you are seeking to **participate**. If you cite tertiary sources in a scholarly argument, you will mark yourself as a **novice** or **outsider**, and many readers won't take you—or your argument—seriously.

Words and Phrases

❑	weaken	*vt.* O を弱める	❑	paraphrase	*n.* 言い換え
❑	disagreement	*n.* 見解の不一致	❑	skim	*vt.* O を掬い取る
❑	rational	*a.* 理性的な	❑	authority	*n.* 権威
❑	heading	*n.* 見出し	❑	reliable	*a.* 信頼のおける
❑	chart	*n.* グラフ	❑	tackle	*vt.* O にとりくむ
❑	bullet point	*n.* 注意を引くための黒丸	❑	synthesize	*vt.* O を総合する
❑	technical	*a.* 専門的な	❑	participate	*vi.* 参加する
❑	ordinary	*a.* 普通の	❑	novice	*n.* 見習い
❑	quotation	*n.* 引用	❑	outsider	*n.* 第三者、よそ者

論文作成のヒント３：グラフや表の表現

「図１は…ということを示している」

Figure 1 suggests that …

日本語では、「B グループは…」のように「B」を「グループ」という名詞の前に置くが、英語では{○Group B/×B Group}と必ず、カテゴリーを表す名称を前に置く。これは、Number 1、Mister Yamada、Class 1、Detective Conan など多くの類例を持ち、この「図１」という表現でも同じ。

「図１と図２は…ということを示している」

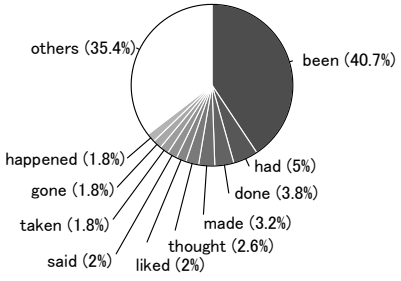
{×Figure/○**Figures**} 1 and 2 suggest that …

もともと普通名詞が番号の前に移動した表現であるので、可算名詞である以上、複数のものを指す場合は、複数形にする。

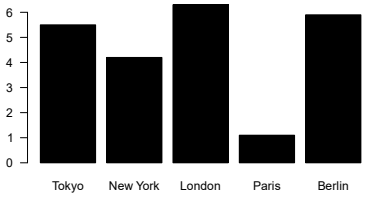
「表１から 6 はすべて…ということを示している」

Table**s** 1 {to/through} 6 all show that ...

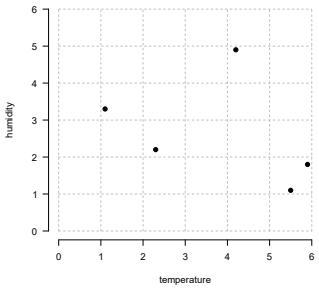
円グラフ pie chart



棒グラフ bar plot



散布図 scatter plot



QUICK TIP: Professional academic researchers are expected to consider all the evidence that might be relevant to their claim—not just one letter in which Einstein describes his creative process but (d) every letter in which he mentions it. Business researchers are expected to consider all the evidence that might change their claim significantly—interviews not just with one customer but with several of the most important ones. Students can't be held to these standards, however, because they rarely have the time, resources, or **expertise** to **assemble** such complete bodies of evidence. So find our your teacher's **ground rules** before you start: how many sources are you expected to consult? When must you use primary sources? When can you **substitute** secondary sources? Will tertiary source be acceptable if its author is a respected scholar? Then you can plan your search to find the kind and amount of evidence you will need to convince **amiable** but **skeptical** readers of your claim.

3.2 Search for sources systematically

Knowing where to begin your search for sources can be **overwhelming** at first. It is **tempting** simply to **enter** terms into a search engine like Google and see what comes up. We do this too, but we also know that there are more systematic and productive ways for discovering useful, **credible** sources. Many school libraries offer **curated** collections of sources intended specifically for students. In college, though, you can't rely on such collections but must build up your own. Make the library the focus of your search strategy, using not just its physical collections but also the online resources it offers.

Ask a librarian

Students often imagine libraries as collections of materials, as places to study, or as **portals** to various online resources. But don't forget about the *people*: be sure to consult the reference librarians and (in larger libraries) subject area specialists who are there to help you. (b) They can show you how to use the catalog to **locate** materials held by your library or by other libraries (and **obtainable** through **interlibrary loan**); they can help you **refine** your search strategy and guide you to the right tools for your project. They may also have created research guides for specific topics and courses; identifying relevant reference works and online databases.

And don't be shy. Librarians love to assist researchers of all levels and at all stages of the research process. They can help you formulate your research question and plan, develop search terms, and (c) **inventory** your results to **ensure** you haven't **overlooked** something of value. The only **embarrassing** question is the one you failed to ask. If you already have your research question, share it: *I'm looking for data on X because I want to find out …* If you have a working hypothesis and reasons, share them too: *I'm looking for data to show Y [your reason] because I want to claim Z [your hypothesis]*. Rehearse your questions to avoid wasting your time and theirs.

Consult reference works

Look up your topic in a specialized encyclopedia or dictionary such as the *Encyclopedia of Philosophy* or the ***Concise*** *Oxford Dictionary of Literary Terms*, where you may find an overview of your topic. You will also usually find a list of standard primary and secondary sources.

Words and Phrases

- ❑ expertise *n*. 高度な専門知識
- ❑ assemble *vt*. O を集める
- ❑ ground rule *n*. 基本的な姿勢、ルール
- ❑ substitute *vt*. O を代わりに使用する
- ❑ amiable *a*. 友好的な
- ❑ skeptical *a*. 疑りぶかい
- ❑ overwhelming *a*. （人を）圧倒する
- ❑ tempting *a*. 魅力的な
- ❑ enter *vt*. 入力する
- ❑ credible *a*. 信頼のおける
- ❑ curate *vt*. O を企画展示する
- ❑ portal *n*. 入口
- ❑ locate *vt*. O の場所を探し出す
  ※前出の locate「O を位置づける」とは意味が異なることに注意。
- ❑ obtainable *a*. 入手可能な
- ❑ interlibrary laon *n*. 図書館相互貸借（制度）
- ❑ refine *vt*. O を精錬する
- ❑ inventory *vt*. O の一覧表を作る
- ❑ ensure *vt*. O を確実にする
- ❑ overlook *vt*. O を見落とす
- ❑ embarrassing *a*. やっかいな

Grammar

下線部 (b) **and/but のつなぐもの**

この obtainable は other libraries と等位接続されているわけではない。前者は形容詞、後者は名詞であり品詞が異なるからである。ここでは held と並んで materials を修飾。

They can show you how to use the catalog to locate

$$\text{materials} \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{held} \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{by your library} \\ \text{or} \\ \text{by other libraries} \end{array} \right\} \\ \textbf{\textit{and}} \\ \text{obtainable through interlibrary loan} \end{array} \right\}$$

「司書さんたちは、その図書館、あるいは別の図書館に所蔵されている資料や、図書館相互貸借制度を通じて手に入れることができる資料を探し出すためにどのようにカタログを使えばよいのかを教えてくれる」

下線部 (c) **ゼロ派生**

ある品詞から別の品詞を作ることを「派生 derivation」と言う。

例	globe →	glob-al →	glob-al-ize →	glob-al-iz-ation
	地球儀	地球上の	世界的規模にする	世界化
	名詞	形容詞	動詞	名詞

上の例のように、語尾に-al や-ize のような要素が加わることで、品詞が転換されたことを示すことが多いが、特別な語尾を添えずに品詞を変えることがあり、これをゼロ派生と言う。

例	google →	google
	グーグル社	ぐぐる（←「グーグル社が提供する検索エンジンで検索する」）
	名詞	動詞
	inventory →	inventory
	一覧表	～の一覧表を作る
	名詞	動詞

Search your library catalog

Search your online catalog using keywords from your question or hypothesis—*space exploration, female* ***astronauts****, Sally Ride*. If you find too many titles, limit your search to those published in the last ten years. If you find too few, search a catalog service like WorldCat (if your library supports it) or go to the Library of Congress catalog at http://www.loc.gov. It has links to large university catalogs. Start early if you expect to get books from interlibrary loan.

Articles. If most sources on your topic are articles, locate a recent one in your library's online databases. Its database **entry** will include a list of keywords. Use them to find more articles on your topic. In most cases you can just click on them. Some databases provide **abstracts** of journal articles. Use these keywords to search the library catalog as well.

Books. Once you find one book relevant to your topic, look it up in your library's online catalog to find its Library of Congress subject headings (at the bottom of the entry). Click on the subject headings to find other books on the same topics. Many of those sources will have more subject headings that can lead you to still more sources. It can turn into an endless **trail**.

Explore online resources

Libraries also have online resources that are not freely available on the internet: **subscriptions** to general and specialized **indexes**, databases, and collections on a **vast array** of topics. After books, these are **arguably** a library's most valuable **assets**, since (d) they give researchers access to materials of high scholarly quality they could not obtain **otherwise**. Major research libraries offer the most **comprehensive** access, but most college libraries, and even many high school and public libraries, offer online tools and resources that greatly extend their actual collections. The best way to find the right online tools and resources for your project is to talk with a reference librarian.

(From *Student's Guide to Writing College Papers*, By Kate L. Turabian, pp.52-57
)

Words and Phrases

- ❑ astronaut *n*. 宇宙飛行士
- ❑ entry *n*. 入力 > 入力されたもの（辞書などの見出し）
- ❑ abstract *n*. 要旨
- ❑ trail *n*. 道
- ❑ subscription *n*. 予約購読
- ❑ index *n*. 測定された指標
- ❑ vast *a*. 莫大な
- ❑ an array of *n*. ～が勢ぞろいしたもの
- ❑ arguably *ad*. 異論のあるところではあるが
  「違う見解を持つ人もいるかもしれないが」という断定を弱める文修飾の副詞
- ❑ asset *n*. 財産、強味
- ❑ otherwise *ad*. 別のやり方で（は）
- ❑ comprehensive *a*. 包括的な

Grammar

下線部 (d) **仮定法過去**

they give researchers access to materials of high scholarly quality
(they could not obtain ˄ < **otherwise** >)

「それら（＝図書館が提供するオンライン資料）によって、研究者は、そうでなければ（＝図書館を経由しなければ）入手することが難しい、高い学術的水準の資料に、アクセスできるのである」

Otherwise は other way を語源とする副詞で「別のやり方で（は)」という意味を持つ。ここでは、「現実のシナリオである図書館を経由するやりかたでは」と「架空のシナリオである図書館を経由しないやりかたでは」を比べ、後者に言及する際に仮定法過去が使われている。

ちなみに、この構文は無生物主語構文ともなっているので訳出するときには不空をするとよいだろう。

課題 3 ：ビデオ視聴

Unit 3 の中にあるビデオ群を視聴してください。必要に応じて下記にメモを取ってください。

参考資料１：先行研究を探す場所

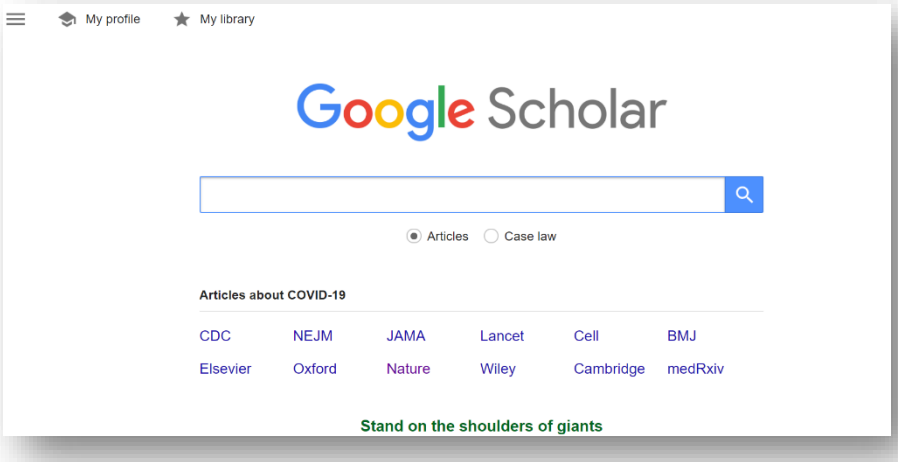
Ⅰ　図書館を訪れる

A. 大学付属図書館

B. 国立国会図書館（https://www.ndl.go.jp/）

C. 国立国会図書館デジタルコレクション（https://dl.ndl.go.jp/）

2　Google Scholar (https://scholar.google.com/)



3　個人ウェブサイトのマニュスクリプト/プレプリント

参考資料２：学術的媒体の種類

新聞、文庫、ブログは学術的な参考文献にはせず、査読付き論文を基本的なソースとすること。

1　ハンドブック

1.
図書

The **Cambridge handbook** of **pragmatics** / edited by Keith Allan and Kasia M. Jaszczolt

: pbk. - Cambridge : Cambridge University Press , 2015 . - (**Cambridge h**andbooks in language and linguistics)

書誌ID=2004471506 NCID=BB18858132

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Contents

List of figures page vii
List of contributors viii
Acknowledgements x

1 Introduction: Pragmatic objects and pragmatic methods *Kasia M. Jaszczolt and Keith Allan* 1

Part I Problems and Theories 21
2 Research paradigms in pragmatics *Mira Ariel* 23
3 Saying, meaning, and implicating *Kent Bach* 47
4 Implying and inferring *Laurence R. Horn* 69
5 Speaker intentions and intentionality *Michael Haugh and Kasia M. Jaszczolt* 87
6 Context and content: Pragmatics in two-dimensional semantics *Berit Brogaard* 113
7 Contextualism: Some varieties *François Recanati* 135
8 The psychology of utterance processing: Context vs salience *Rachel Giora* 151
9 Sentences, utterances, and speech acts *Mikhail Kissine* 169
10 Pragmatics in update semantics *Henk Zevat* 191

9

Sentences, utterances, and speech acts

Mikhail Kissine

A gleam pushed through the sleepiness in his grey eyes, and he sat up a little in his chair, asking: 'Leggett's been up to something?'
'Why did you say that?'
'I didn't say it. I asked it.'

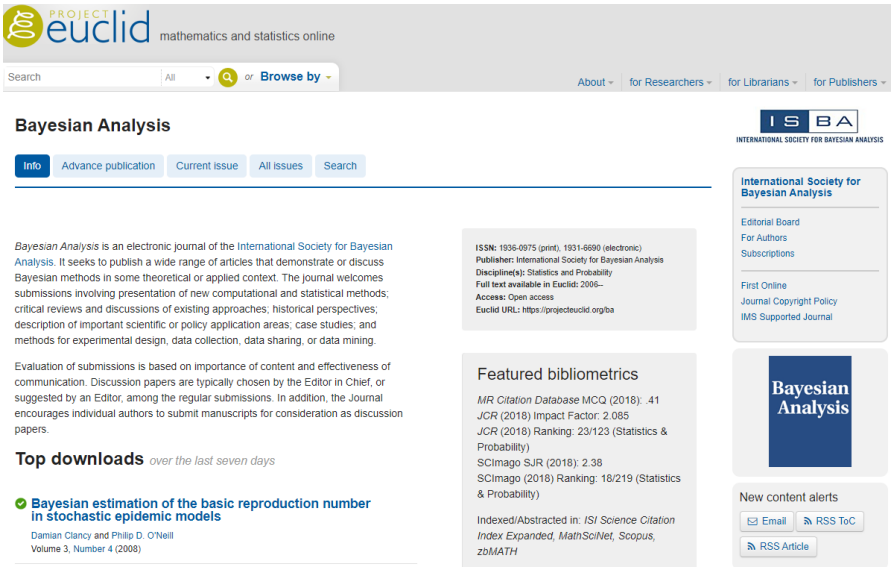
Dashiell Hammett, *The Dain Curse*

9.1 Introduction

Most of the time, when we speak, we do more than express propositions; we suggest, promise, offer, accept, order, threaten, assert – we perform speech (or *illocutionary*) acts. The history of the research on this topic – initiated by Austin (1975) – is well-documented, and many textbooks, handbooks and encyclopaedias contain excellent surveys, thus treating speech acts as a major topic (e.g. Levinson 1983: chapter 5; Jaszczolt 2002: chapter 14; Sadock 2004). However, the main contemporary pragmatic theories of utterance interpretation devote little space, if any at all, to the way utterances are interpreted as speech acts, that is to the way they are assigned an *illocutionary force* (see, for instance, Sperber and Wilson 1986; Levinson 2000; Carston 2002; Recanati 2004a; Jaszczolt 2005). One might think that speech acts went out of fashion simply because the topic had been exhausted by the considerable number of publications spanning from Austin's work in the late fifties to the late eighties – when other topics, such as the pragmatic determinants of literal meaning, came to the fore.

I'm grateful to Keith Allan, Philippe De Brabanter, Marc Dominicy and Kasia Jaszczolt for helpful comments on previous versions of this paper. My research is supported by a post-doctoral research grant from the Fonds de la Recherche Scientifique de la Communauté française de Belgique (F.R.S.-FNRS). The results presented here are also part of the research carried out within the scope of the ARC project 06/11–342 *Culturally modified organisms: What it means to be human in the age of culture*, funded by the Ministère de la Communauté française – Direction générale de l'Enseignement non obligatoire et de la Recherche scientifique.

2　論文



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Damian Clancy and Philip D. O'Neill
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Bayesian estimation of the basic reproduction number in stochastic epidemic models

Damian Clancy* and Philip D. O'Neill†

Abstract. In recent years there has been considerable activity in the development and application of Bayesian inferential methods for infectious disease data using stochastic epidemic models. Most of this activity has employed computationally intensive approaches such as Markov chain Monte Carlo methods. In contrast, here we address fundamental questions for Bayesian inference in the setting of the standard SIR (Susceptible-Infective-Removed) epidemic model via simple methods. Our main focus is on the basic reproduction number, a quantity of central importance in mathematical epidemic theory, whose value essentially dictates whether or not a large epidemic outbreak can occur. We specifically consider two SIR models routinely employed in the literature, namely the model with exponentially distributed infectious periods, and the model with fixed length infectious periods. It is assumed that an epidemic outbreak is observed through time. Given complete observation of the epidemic, we derive explicit expressions for the posterior densities of the model parameters and the basic reproduction number. For partial observation of the epidemic, when the entire infection process is unobserved, we derive conservative bounds for quantities such as the mean of the basic reproduction number and the probability that a major epidemic outbreak will occur. If the time at which the epidemic started is observed, then linear programming methods can be used to derive suitable bounds for the mean of the basic reproduction number and similar quantities. Numerical examples are used to illustrate the practical consequences of our findings. In addition, we also examine the implications of commonly-used prior distributions on the basic model parameters as regards inference for the basic reproduction number.

Keywords: Basic reproduction number; Bayesian inference; Epidemics; Linear programming; Stochastic epidemic models

1 Introduction

In recent years there has been considerable activity in both the methodological development and application of methods for Bayesian data analysis of infectious disease outbreak data using stochastic epidemic models. Almost all of this literature employs Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) methodology, which offers enormous power and flexibility compared to other approaches (see e.g. Gibson and Renshaw, 1998; O'Neill and Roberts, 1999; O'Neill *et al.*, 2000; Streftaris and Gibson, 2004; Neal and Roberts, 2005). The methods have been applied to many different human, animal and plant

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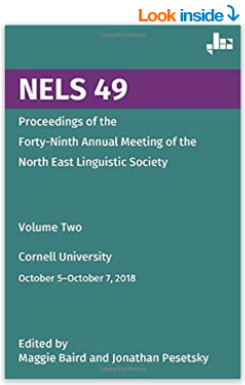
3　学会のプロシーディングス



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Alexander Göbel
Don't give me that attitude! Anti-*De Se* and Feature Matching of German D-Pronouns 21

Aurore Gonzalez, Kate Henninger & Kathryn Davidson
Answering negative questions in American Sign Language 31

Yael Greenberg
Even and *Only*: Arguing for parallels in scalarity and in constructing alternatives 45

Yael Greenberg & Lavi Wolf
Intensified response particles to assertions and polar questions: The case of Hebrew *legamrey* 61

Laura Grestenberger & Dalina Kallulli
The largesse of diminutives: suppressing the projection of roots 71

David Hall
P-D-drop and pseudo-incorporation in London English 85

Condition A Reconstruction in German A′-movement. An empirical investigation*

Doreen Georgi,[2] Martin Salzmann,[1] & Marta Wierzba[2]
[1]University of Leipzig, [2]University of Potsdam

1. Introduction

Reconstruction effects, whereby a constituent is not interpreted in its surface position but rather in a lower position, have played an important role in linguistic theory. They are taken to indicate that the filler is linked to the position it is semantically interpreted in by means of movement (rather than by base-generation, cf. Aoun, Choueiri, & Hornstein 2001).

Investigating Principle A in movement dependencies is of particular interest because it can apparently be satisfied at different points of the derivation: in the base position or in intermediate positions (SpecCP) as in (1a) (cf. Barss 1986:25), and also in the final landing site, cf. (1b), thus providing evidence for successive-cyclic movement:

(1) a. [Which picture of himself$_{i/j}$] did John$_i$ think ___ Fred$_j$ liked ___
b. John$_i$ wonders [which picture of himself$_{i/j}$] Bill$_j$ likes ___

Another intriguing aspect of Condition A reconstruction is that, while it is apparently optional with DP-arguments as in (1), it has been claimed to be obligatory with predicates (because they contain the trace of the local subject, cf. Huang 1993/because predicates are non-referential, cf. Heycock 1995). This can be seen in the fact that intermediate binding is unavailable with anaphors contained in predicates:

(2) ... but [listen to each other$_{*i/j}$], they$_i$ say the kids$_j$ won't ___

Diagnosing reconstruction for Principle A requires some care since there are possible confounds that need to be ruled out: First, some languages, e.g., English, allow for logophoric,

*We thank the audiences at NELS 49, CGSW 33 (Göttingen, 2018) and at the syntax-semantics colloquium of the University of Potsdam for helpful feedback. We are also grateful to Lena Jäger for statistical advice and Mareike Philipp for discussion of methodological issues. This research was funded by the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG, German Research Foundation) – project number 317633480 – SFB 1287, project C05 (Georgi) and grant 2646/2-1 (Salzmann).

4　書籍

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5　博士論文


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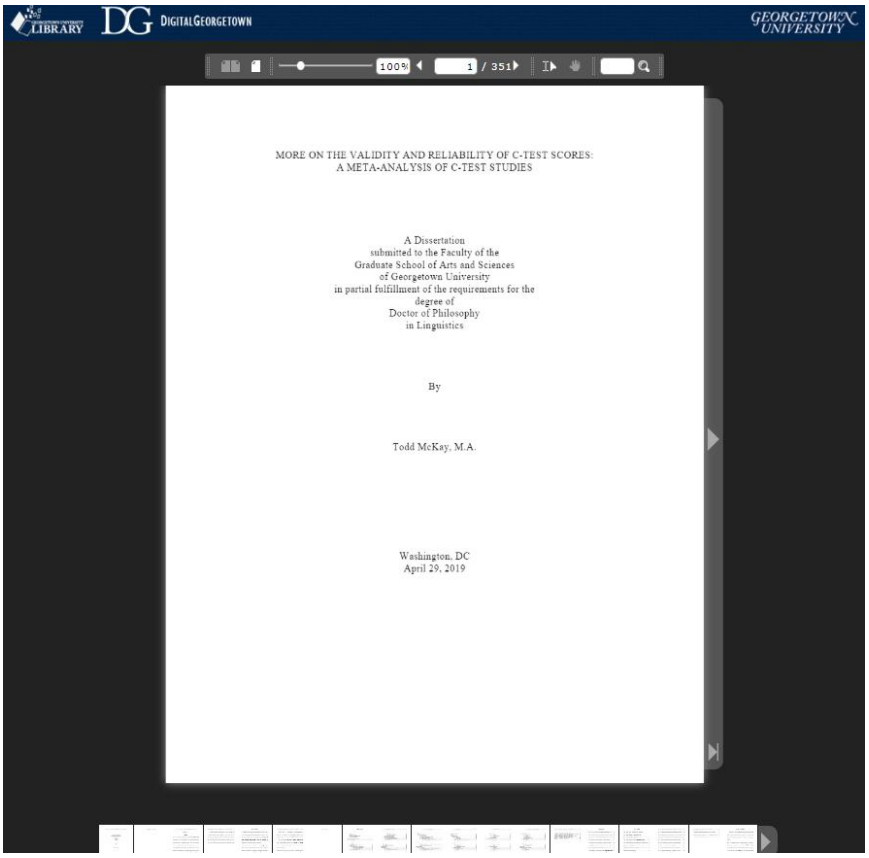
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in Linguistics
By
Todd McKay, M.A.
Washington, DC
April 29, 2019

6　*大学の紀要

言語文化共同研究プロジェクト２０２１

自然言語への理論的アプローチ

宮本陽一
中野晃希
越智正男
大谷修樹
山田彬尭
由本陽子

大阪大学大学院

イ形容詞文における丁寧語使用の歴史的変化 *
状態空間モデルを用いた時系列分析

山田彬尭

1.　はじめに

規範文法におけるイ形容詞文に使用される丁寧語の取り扱いは、20 世紀後半に大きな転換を迎えている。1916 年から 2009 年までに出版された 16 の規範文法書や明治期から昭和期の国定教科書を調査した川口(2014)は、(i) 今では人口に膾炙した(1)a のような「イ形容詞＋です」という表現が 20 世紀後半に至るまでは規範的だとは見なされてこなかったことを明らかにしており、(ii) 代わりに(1)b のような「(ウ音便の)イ形容詞＋ございます」が、意図した意味を表現するために推奨されていたことを指摘している。

(1)　a. 富士山は　美しいです。　　新形式
　　b. 富士山は　美しゅうございます。　　旧形式

この川口(2014)の研究は、丁寧語の構文の確率的交替全般に関わる、通時的、共時的なバリエーションについて大局的な傾向を詳らかにした点で大きな意義を持つ。ただし、下記の項目については十分な検討が尽くされたとは言い難い。

(2)　先行研究において取り残されているリサーチクエスチョン
　a.　新形式はいつごろから用いられてきたのか。
　b.　どのような社会言語学的環境で新形式はその使用を拡大させていったのか。
　c.　どのような理論言語学的要因で新形式はその使用を拡大させていったのか。
　d.　新形式を用いる選好度合いはイ形容詞ごとに異なるのか。

本稿は、このような先行研究において取り残されている問いに対し、予備的な考察を

* 本研究は 2020-2021 年度研究活動スタート支援「敬語表現の選択：コーパスを用いた一般化階層ベイズモデリングの理論言語学への統合（代表:山田彬尭）」（#20K21957）の支援、および 2021-2026 年、研究拠点形成事業（先端拠点形成型）「自然言語の構造と獲得メカニズムの理解に向けた研究拠点形成（代表：宮本陽一）」（#JPJSCCA20210001）の助成を受けた研究成果の一部である。

— 42 —

課題４：自分の文献リストを作る

授業ビデオで解説があったように、自分だけの参考文献リストを作り、プリントアウトして教員に見せてください。チェックを受け、不十分である場合には、再度作りなおしてください。Go サインをもらったら、下記に張り付けて、なくさないようにし、このリストに沿って先行研究を読み続けていってください。

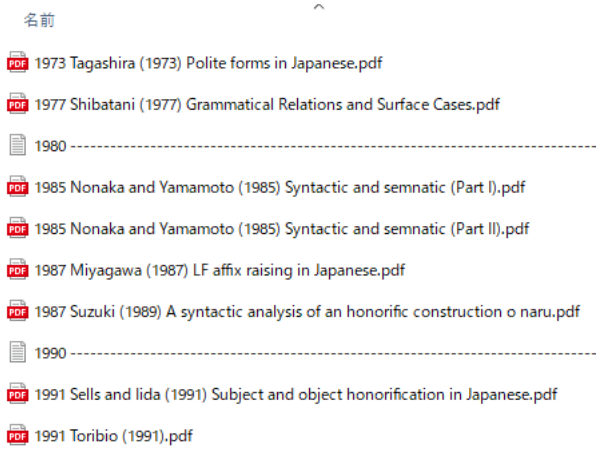
先行研究を整理する

先行研究は、ダウンロードしたら必ず整理しておこう。最初に保存するときに、将来どのようなフォルダー群になるのか先読みして名前を付けておくのがおすすめ。

フォルダーを階層化する

統一的なファイルの名前にする

By Year



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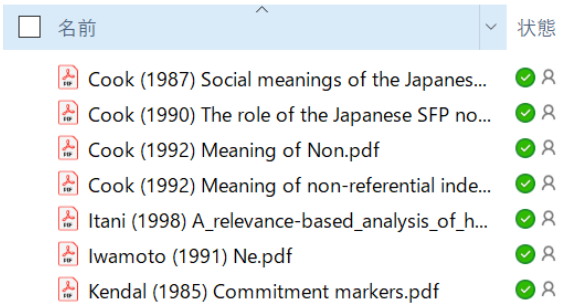


先行研究を整理する

ノートを取るときにいくつかのことを頭に置いておくとよい。

1. ひとは忘れるものだ！

2. 一度で理解できるわけではない
   ⇒ 日を置いてから再びノートテイキングは発生する

3. 知りたい情報は読む前から存在する
   ⇒ 著者が語るがままに読むのではなく、こちらが聞きたい情報を探しに行く

   (ア) イントロダクション
   - ① 先行研究の大局的な構造は？
   - ② リサーチクエスチョンは？
   - ③ 結論は？

   (イ) 先行研究まとめ
   - ① 具体的なパイオニアたちは誰？
   - ② これまでの研究の限界は？
   - ③ 著者の立ち位置は？

   (ウ) データ
   - ① 説明されるべきデータは「何個」あるか？
   - ② 著者たちの仮説を証明するのか？
   - ③ 著者たちの仮説と整合的なのか？

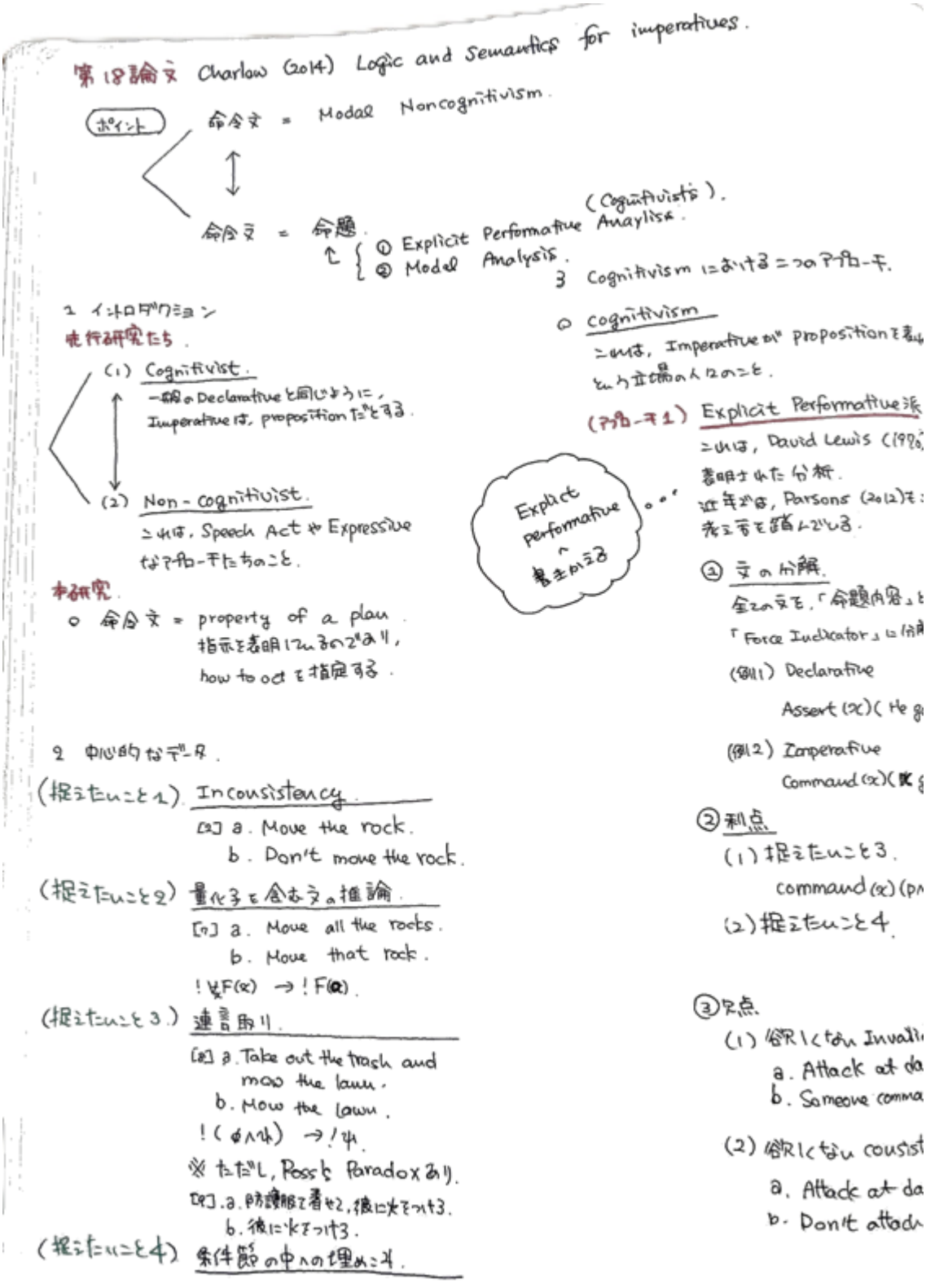
   (エ) 理論／分析
   - ① 理論の基礎は？
   - ② 理論と分析に乖離はないか？
   - ③ 先行研究の理論との関係は？

4. 自分メモを残す
   ⇒ 容認度判断への違和感や思いついたアイデアなどは本文とは異なる様式で追記しておく

5. 通し番号をつけておく

参考資料：おまけ

教員のノート公開：



第19論文. Portner (to appear). Commitment to Priorities.

Gunlogson (2001) に端発

ポイント　談話における命令文の意味

これは，次の二つを考慮することが必要

① 談話における個人の commitment 履歴

② 談話における共同 commitment

1 デフォ：命令の強弱

Paulは，次に見られるように，同じ imp. という形をしていても，「強い」と思われるものと「弱い」と思われるものがあることを指摘．

[1] a. 行き：Soldiers, march!

b. 行き：Have a cookie!

要因1　束縛 vs. 提案

行動を押しつけるものなのか，それとも，選択肢を提示するものか．

[2] a. 動くな！

b. 座ってください．

要因2　既に真 vs. これから真

[3] のいそうを始めろ！

[4] たくさん洗濯機にいれろ．

要因3　Must的 vs. may的

[5] a. (Must) March!

b. (May) Have cookies!

要因4　イントネーション

イントネーションで強弱がかわる．

[6] a. Have a seat ↓

b. Have a seat ↑

2 Dynamic Pragmatics

Dynamic Pragmatics の基本哲学

(主張1). 文は static な Semantic value を持つ（伝統的仮定は維持）

(主張2) 発話は，談話において，効果をもつ．

(主張3) 効果は，その文の意味に基づく，語用論的な原則にしたがう．

2.1 動的語用論の歴史的沿革

(1) 先行研究1　Hamblin と構造化された談話

Hamblin (1971).

この研究が動的語用論の端初とされる．

① Dialogue.

(a) 五つのタイプ

(b) Sequence of locutions.

② Commitment States.

個人Pのもつ Assertion の集合．

Hamblin Context

[def.] A Hamblin Context is a
{ a location
and
an associated assignment of CS to ind

[定式化]

l_j に対するコンテクスト C_{j-1}.

$C_{j-1} = \langle l_{j-1}, CS_{j-1} \rangle$

Commitment slates.
Assertionの集合を
各個人に割りあてる．

※構造化された談話文脈

Structured Discourse Context

(A) Discourse Context.

Set-theoretical object としてモデル化．

各 component は，談話における．

異なるアスペクトを表わしている．

(B) commitment State を表すこと．

これは，p人いる場合，

各人の commitment を捉えるため，

p個分の事実として蓄えられることに．

(2) 先行研究2　Stalnaker (1974, 1978)

Common Ground という概念を提
→ 会話参与者たちの間で共有される
propositions の集合．

ポイント　Hamblin とのちがい

ここには，mutual commitments の
propositions の集合が1つだけ。
逆に，Hamblin のモデルでは，
各参加者の commitment のレコー
存在していることとなる。

ポイント　ねらい

Stalnaker のねらいは，この common
ground と，そこからつくりだされる
Context Set によって，
Assertion と Pragmatic Presupposi
捉えることにあった。

▲わかんないところがあったら、とりあえず先に進んで、残ったところは数週間後にもう一度向き合って、その時に書いた紙をノートに張り付けた。

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氏名: