

Contents

<i>Foreword</i>	ix
<i>Preface</i>	x
<i>Symbols and conventions</i>	xiv
<i>Acknowledgements</i>	xvii

Part A

Introduction	1
1 What Grammar Is and Is Not	3
1.1 Grammar and its role in language	3
1.2 ‘Good’ and ‘bad’ grammar	5
1.3 Variation in language	6
1.4 English and other languages	10
1.5 Grammar and effective communication	12
1.6 Conclusion	14
<i>Exercises</i>	14
2 Getting Started with Grammar	17
2.1 Grammar in prose literature	17
2.2 Grammar in poetry	19
2.3 A taste of morphology: the structure of words	20
2.4 Simple and complex words	20
2.5 Derivational and inflectional suffixes	24
2.6 Summary: the main points of English morphology	25
<i>Exercises</i>	26

Part B

Analysis	31
3 Sentences and Their Parts	33
3.1 Prologue: parts of speech	33
3.2 The hierarchy of units	36
3.3 Grammatical notations	38
3.4 Using tests	40
3.5 Form and function	42
3.6 Summary	46
<i>Exercises</i>	46

4	Words	49
4.1	Open and closed word classes	49
4.2	The open classes	51
4.3	Closed word classes	59
4.4	Summary	63
	<i>Exercises</i>	63
5	Phrases	66
5.1	Classes of phrase	66
5.2	Main and subordinate phrases	67
5.3	Noun phrases and related phrase classes	70
5.4	The adjective phrase and the adverb phrase	75
5.5	The verb phrase (VP)	77
5.6	Summary	80
	<i>Exercises</i>	81
6	Clauses	85
6.1	Elements of the clause	85
6.2	Complex sentences	87
6.3	Tensed and tenseless clauses	89
6.4	Declarative, interrogative and imperative clauses	90
6.5	Active and passive clauses	93
6.6	More on clause structure	93
6.7	Clause patterns	94
6.8	The structure of tenseless clauses	97
6.9	Parsing a simple sentence	97
6.10	Summary	101
	<i>Exercises</i>	101
7	Subordination and Coordination	104
7.1	Subordinate clauses (SCL)	105
7.2	Tensed subordinate clauses	107
7.3	The functions of subordinate clauses	111
7.4	Tenseless subordinate clauses	112
7.5	Direct and indirect subordination	114
7.6	Skeleton analysis	115
7.7	Coordination	117
7.8	Summary and conclusion	120
	<i>Exercises</i>	121
8	Basic and Derived Structures	123
8.1	Constituent structure grammar	123
8.2	Basic and derived structures	124
8.3	'Missing' elements	126
8.4	Split constituents	129
8.5	'Double analysis'	130

8.6	Back to parsing	133
8.7	Style and structure-changing rules	134
8.8	Summary and conclusion	137
	<i>Exercises</i>	137
Part C		
Applications		139
9	Working with Discourse: Speech and Writing	141
9.1	Introduction	141
9.2	Speech and writing: which comes first?	141
9.3	Functions of writing and speech	142
9.4	The form of speech and writing	143
9.5	Linguistic characteristics of speech and writing	144
9.6	An analysis of spoken and written discourse	151
9.7	Conclusion	154
	<i>Exercises</i>	154
10	Working with Discourse: Tenor and Domain	156
10.1	Introduction	156
10.2	Tenor	156
10.3	Tenor and discourse	159
10.4	Domain	162
10.5	Domain and discourse	164
10.6	Combining categories of use	166
	<i>Exercises</i>	168
11	Working with Literary Discourse	172
11.1	How to analyse style	172
11.2	Illustrative extract	179
11.3	Outline analysis (with questions for further study)	180
11.4	Further illustrative extracts for discussion	181
	<i>Exercises</i>	182
12	Grammar and Problems of Usage	184
12.1	Opinions about grammar	184
12.2	Prescriptive ‘rules’	185
12.3	The priests of usage	186
12.4	Problems of personal pronouns	187
12.5	The problem of number concord	190
12.6	The problem of the generic masculine	191
12.7	Problems of ellipsis	191
12.8	Dangling tenseless clauses	192
12.9	Conclusion	194
	<i>Exercises</i>	194

13	Grammar and composition	196
13.1	Grammar and writing	196
13.2	'Make your language easy to follow'	196
13.3	'Be clear'	201
13.4	'Be economical'	202
13.5	'Be clear but concise': clarity versus economy	203
13.6	'Be effective'	205
	<i>Exercises</i>	206
	<i>Answers to Exercises</i>	209
	<i>Notes</i>	228
	<i>Further Reading</i>	230
	<i>Index</i>	233

What Grammar Is and Is Not

1

1.1 Grammar and its role in language

It is important from the outset to be clear about what we mean by the term GRAMMAR in this book. Many people think of grammar as a rather boring school subject which has little use in real life. They may have come across the concept in learning languages like French or Latin, in English composition, or in the explanations of teachers as to what is ‘good’ or ‘bad’ grammar. So grammar is often associated in people’s minds with one of the following ideas: a dead language such as Latin, learning how to write ‘properly’, or learning what ‘good English’ is. None of these ideas about grammar is completely wrong, but collectively they give quite the wrong picture of what grammar is about and what grammar is for.

In this book we use the term ‘grammar’ to refer to the mechanism by which language works when we communicate with other people. We cannot see grammar concretely, because it is represented rather abstractly in the human mind, but we know it is there because it works. One way of describing grammar is as a set of rules which allow us to put words together in certain ways, but not in other ways. At some level, speakers of a language must know these rules; otherwise they would not be able to put words together in a meaningful way.

Even if they have never heard of the word ‘grammar’ all native speakers of English (i.e. those who have learned English as their first language) know at least unconsciously that adjectives are placed before nouns in English. You would get unanimous agreement among English speakers that *The blue book is on the table* (where *blue* is an adjective, *book* a noun) is a possible sentence, whereas *The book blue is on the table* is not.

If we study the grammar of our native language, then we are trying to make explicit the knowledge of the language that we already have. We might do this out of pure curiosity as to how language works, but we might also find the knowledge useful for other purposes. We might wish to teach English to foreign language speakers, for example, or work out how a foreign language

is different from our own. Or we might want to work out how the language of poetry or advertising makes an impact on us, or learn to criticise and improve our own style of writing.

So far we have said crudely that grammar is a way of putting words together, but we have said little about sound or meaning. We can think of grammar as being a central part of language, which relates sound and meaning. The meaning of any message conveyed by language has to be converted into words put together according to grammatical rules, and these words are then conveyed by sound. The term PHONOLOGY is often used to mean the system of sounds in a language, and SEMANTICS, the system of meaning. However, in this book we will be concerned mainly with the central component of language, GRAMMAR, which relates phonology and semantics, or sound and meaning. The relationship between the three components is represented in Figure 1.1.

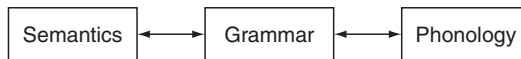


Figure 1.1

So meanings are conveyed, via grammar, in sound; but what about writing? One of the ideas which many people have about grammar is that it has to do with the written language. The word ‘grammar’ in fact goes back to the Greek *grámma*, meaning ‘something written, a letter of the alphabet’, but although statements about the origin of words such as this may be interesting historically, we cannot rely on them to tell us the current meaning of the word, as meanings change in time. Traditionally, grammar did have to do with the written language, especially the Latin language, which continued to be studied and used in its written form long after it had ceased to be generally spoken. But the written form of a language is really only secondary to its spoken form, which developed first. Children learn to speak before they learn to write. Whereas they learn to speak naturally, without tuition, from the language they hear around them, they have to be taught to write – that is, to convert their speech into a written or secondary form. Yet writing performs an extraordinarily important function in our culture (see Chapter 9), and in this book we view grammar as a mechanism for producing both speech and writing. We can now modify our previous diagram, as shown in Figure 1.2.

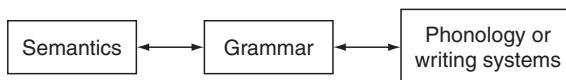


Figure 1.2

1.2 ‘Good’ and ‘bad’ grammar

The value terms ‘good’ and ‘bad’ do not apply to ‘grammar’ in the way in which we are using that term in this book. If we view grammar as a set of rules which describe how we use language, the rules themselves are neither good nor bad, though they might be described well or badly in a description of how the language works.

Linguists who write grammars are concerned with **describing** how the language works rather than dictating, or **prescribing**, how it should be used. So if it is common for people to use sentences such as *Me and Kim are good friends*, then descriptive grammar has to allow for this type of sentence in its rules. People concerned with prescription, however, might consider this to be an example of ‘bad grammar’, and might suggest that *Kim and I are good friends* would be a better sentence. But what is considered better or worse is of no concern to a descriptive linguist in writing a grammar that accounts for the way people actually use language. If people are communicating effectively with language, then they must be following rules, even if those rules are not universally approved. So the role of the linguist is similar to the role of the anthropologist who, if asked to describe a particular culture’s eating habits, would be expected to do so without expressing a personal opinion as to what they should be like. The latter would be a prescriptive approach. It is probably more difficult, though, to avoid being prescriptive when dealing with our own culture. As speakers of their native language, many people have ideas or prescriptive notions about how it should be used. Nevertheless, we should be able to separate the expression of our own or other people’s opinions from the activity of describing actual observed language behaviour.

Although the focus of this book is to be on descriptive grammar, we have to recognise the existence of prescriptive rules, such as the ‘rule’ that says we should avoid phrases beginning with *Me and* at the beginning of a sentence. (This ‘rule’ was broken in the example quoted above – *Me and Kim are good friends*.) Prescriptive rules are clearly not grammatical rules in the same sense as descriptive rules, so it might be appropriate to call them rules of grammatical **appropriateness**. Then we can see that what some people call ‘bad grammar’ is something like ‘bad manners’, i.e. it is something you might want to avoid doing, if you wished to give a good impression. Some people consider it bad manners to put one’s elbows on the table while eating and yet, from a descriptive point of view, it occurs rather often. All the same, people who eat regularly at home with their elbows on the table might avoid doing it at a formal dinner party, simply because it would not be fitting behaviour in such a setting. Similarly, there are occasions when being on one’s best linguistic behaviour means obeying rules (e.g. saying or writing *Kim and I* rather than *Me and Kim*) which one would not normally adhere to in private conversation.

For a moment, let’s go back to the anthropologist studying social customs. In some societies it is famously considered ‘good form’ for an invited guest to burp appreciatively after eating. But in other societies a burp, whether appreciative or not, is avoided as a faux pas. The anthropologist would not

try to judge which of these two habits is the ‘correct one’. Instead, his or her job would be simply to describe such different attitudes and patterns of behaviour. Hence anthropologists can even be **descriptive** in giving an account of **prescriptive** norms. And the same is true of grammarians.

This leads to the point that, as well as knowing the grammatical rules of a language, its speakers also have to know how to use the language appropriately, and this often involves a choice between different options associated with different LANGUAGE VARIETIES.

1.3 Variation in language

1.3.1 Introduction

Taking a rigidly prescriptive approach to language, we might suggest that there was just one, ‘correct’ form of the language that everyone should use. We might recognise that not everyone speaks this ‘correct’ form of the language, but we would describe any other form as simply wrong.

If, however, we take the descriptive approach explored in this book, we cannot dismiss any forms of language in regular use as incorrect: we have to be prepared to describe all varieties of language.

A descriptive approach recognises that there are many varieties of a language such as English. We can identify Americans as speaking in a different way from British people, northerners from southerners, young from old, white-collar from blue-collar workers, and men from women. So language will vary according to who its USERS are. A user’s speech might well reflect several of these characteristics simultaneously: for example, a young woman will speak differently from both a young man and an older woman.

So language can vary from user to user, depending on the user’s personal characteristics. This does not mean that each person speaks a uniform variety of language which never changes. Of course, speech can change as personal characteristics change: as a young person becomes older, a northerner moves south, or social-class membership changes as a result of education, for example. In addition, a person’s language will vary according to the USE it is put to in different situations. For example, the way you talk to a friend will be different from the way you talk to a stranger. The way you talk on the telephone will be different from the way you talk to someone face to face, and you will use yet another variety in writing an e-mail or a text message. Your language will also vary according to what subject you are dealing with, e.g. sport, politics or religion. The variation of language according to its use means that each user has a whole range of language varieties which he or she learns by experience, and knows how to use appropriately. If you talked in the classroom as you would in the pub, you might be considered poorly educated (you might be using ‘bad grammar’ from a prescriptive point of view), and if you addressed your friend as you would your teacher, you might be laughed at.

Let’s now consider variation in language according to **user** and **use** in more detail.

1.3.2 Variation according to user: dialect

The characteristics of the language user which can affect language include the following: regional origin, social-class membership, age and gender. A useful term in connection with these characteristics is DIALECT. This is often used to reflect regional origin – as in, for example, New England dialect, Cockney (London) dialect – but can be used to refer to any language variety related to the personal characteristics listed above.

Regional variation

We can often tell where a person comes from by the way he or she speaks. Depending on how familiar we are with the variety of a given region, we may be able to identify, for example, Cockney, Glaswegian (Glasgow), Scouse (Liverpool) or Geordie (Tyneside) speech. On an international level, we might be able to identify dialect features of (say) Australian, Canadian, Caribbean or Singaporean English. We can identify speech on the basis of its pronunciation, vocabulary or grammar. For example, in Yorkshire dialect, as in some other northern England dialects, the words *put* and *putt* are pronounced alike because the vowel found in the standard or southern pronunciation of words such as *putt*, *bus*, *cup*, etc. is not used. Regional dialect traits of pronunciation are often referred to as REGIONAL ACCENT. Yorkshire dialect also has its own vocabulary, for example the use of the word *happen* to mean *perhaps*. Finally, on the level of grammar, the dialect has *were* as the past tense of the verb *be* in all its forms, so that, for example, *he were* is commonly heard instead of *he was*. So dialect can be identified on the levels of pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar.

At this point we should emphasise that the term ‘dialect’ does not imply an incorrect or deviant use of language: it is simply used to mean a variety of language determined by the characteristics of its user.

As standard English has become the best-known variety of English, and is habitually used in public, especially written, communication, we will use it for analysis in Part B of this book.

Social stratification

The extent to which we can identify social-class dialects is controversial, but the social stratification does certainly affect the variety of the language used. In Britain there is a very noticeable relationship between social stratification and the use of standard and non-standard speech: the ‘higher’ you are up the social scale, the less likely you are to use non-standard or regionally identifiable speech. This means that it is not usually possible to identify the **regional** background of, for example, an upper-middle-class speaker educated at a public school. To make this clearer, imagine that you travel from one end of the country to the other, talking only to manual workers, and tape-recording their speech. Then, on the way back, you take the same route, but record only the speech of ‘professionals’ such as doctors and teachers. On

SPECIAL NOTE ON STANDARD AND NON-STANDARD LANGUAGE

Sometimes, however, the term *dialect* may be used to refer to varieties of the language which are not STANDARD. Thus the expression *he were* mentioned on page 7 is considered to be an example of non-standard grammar.

The standard language is in fact just another variety or dialect: in English use throughout the world, there are similar ‘standardized’ varieties widely accepted as the most suitable for public communication. Beginning in Britain more than five hundred years ago, standard English became established as that variety which was generally used by southern British, educated speakers of the language, and in writing and in public usage including, nowadays, radio and television. It is sometimes known as ‘BBC English’ or even ‘The Queen’s English’. A similar standard (with some differences, for example, in spelling and pronunciation) exists for American English. Standard English is not inherently better or more ‘grammatical’ than non-standard English – all varieties are grammatical in that they follow rules. Clearly, standard English gained prestige for social rather than linguistic reasons. It was ultimately based on the usage of educated people living in the south-east of England, where the important institutions of government and education became established.

comparing the recordings you would expect to find more variation in the speech of the workers than in that of the professionals. The speech of workers would contain a higher proportion of features which are not found in the standard language. Several of these features would be found in more than one area: for example, *done* as the past tense of *do* is found in both Liverpool and London among working-class speakers (who might say, for example, *Who done it?* as opposed to *Who did it?*).

Age

Less is known about the effect of age on language variation, but there are grammatical features which distinguish age dialects to some extent. For example, the question *Have you any money?* would be more likely to be asked by an older speaker of British English than a younger speaker, who would be more likely to use the construction (normal for American English): *Do you have ...?* Younger speakers in both American and British English are more likely to use *'s like* as a substitute for *said* in utterances like *She's like, "Who put that there?"*

Gender

Differences of language behaviour between male and female have been a focus of great interest in recent years, but it is difficult to come up with firm conclusions on grammar, because most research results could be influenced by situational factors, such as the kinds of dialogue in which speakers are

engaged. But the following are examples where **typical** linguistic differences have been claimed between female and male speakers on the basis of convincing evidence:

- Female speakers show a tendency to use more prestige pronunciations than men. For example, men tend to use more pronunciations of *-ing* as /ɪn/, as in *gettin'*, *flippin'*, etc., whereas women are more inclined to use the standard pronunciation.
- Males show a stronger tendency to use non-standard grammar, as in *I ain't done nothing. I didn't want no trouble.*
- Males also show a stronger tendency to use taboo words and 'rude' expressions.
- Another difference is a tendency among males to use less polite language, such as plain imperative forms, e.g. *Sit down.* Female speakers, on the other hand, show a preference for less confrontational strategies, such as *Let's sit down, Would you like to sit down, etc.*

It should by now be clear that personal characteristics of the language user can combine to influence the variety of language used. The term 'dialect' has been used for convenience to identify the effects of these characteristics, as in, for example, 'regional dialect', 'social-class dialect', but these factors are not really separate. All the characteristics interact with one another, so that any individual will speak a language variety made up of features associated with several 'dialects'. Taboo expressions, for example, are associated (a) with males rather than females, (b) with lower social strata rather than higher, and (c) with younger people rather than with older. You may well find these associations unsurprising!

1.3.3 Variation according to use

As was pointed out in 1.3.1, no user of language uses one uniform variety of language. Language also varies according to the use to which it is put. While the term 'dialect' is convenient to refer to language variation according to the user, REGISTER can be used to refer to variation according to use (or 'style' in a general sense). Register can be subdivided into three factors of language use, each of which affects the language variety. These are: TENOR, MODE and DOMAIN.

Tenor

This has to do with the relationship between a speaker and the addressee(s) in a given situation, and is often shown by greater or less formality. For example, a request to close the window might be *Would you be so kind as to close the window?* in a very formal situation, compared with *Shut the window, Jed* in an informal situation. Formality also has the effect of producing speech which is closer to the standard. For example, a witness in court might be careful to say *He didn't do it, Your Honour*, rather than *'E never done it*, which might be said to Cockney-speaking friends outside the

courtroom. A speaker has to know which is the right kind of language to use in which circumstances, though sometimes the wrong choice may be made deliberately, for humorous or ironic effect.

Mode

This has to do with the effects of the medium in which language is transmitted. Spoken language used in face-to-face situations relies on many ‘non-verbal’ signals such as gestures and facial expressions. On the telephone, however, the visual channel is not available so that, for example, *Yes* or *Yeah* has to be substituted for head-nodding. In writing, only the visual channel is available, so the effect of intonation, or ‘tone of voice’, cannot be conveyed, except, in part, by graphic means such as exclamation marks and question marks (!, ?). Written language usually involves addressees who are not present and so cannot respond immediately, and this has an effect on the language. For example, in letters or e-mail messages, direct and shortened questions tend to be less common than in conversation, so that you might be more likely to write something like *Let me know whether you are coming* rather than *Coming?* The key category difference of mode is the distinction between written and spoken language, and recently a fascinating merger of these modes has been taking place in electronic communication, using the internet. These matters will be given further consideration in Chapter 9.

Domain

This has to do with how language varies according to the human activity in which it plays a part. A seminar about chemistry, for example, will involve a wider range of vocabulary, more technical terms and possibly longer sentences than a conversation about the weather (unless by meteorologists!). Similarly, the language of a legal document will be different from that of an advertisement, and the language of a religious service will be different from that of newspaper reporting. We can thus refer to domains of chemistry, law, religion, and so on.

As with dialect variation, the categories of register variation have a combined effect, so that we cannot really identify discrete registers any more than discrete dialects. Further, dialect and register variation interact with each other since both the dimensions of user and use are always present.

To summarize what has been said in this section, language varies according to both user and use. While certain personal traits and dialect ‘settings’ will characterise the language use of a given person, that person’s language will also reflect a range of registers appropriate for various uses.

1.4 English and other languages

1.4.1 What is a language?

So far we have shown that a language such as English has many different varieties, which result from a combination of factors.

We have not questioned the assumption, however, that a language made up of such varieties can be clearly distinguished from all other languages. It is true that we have separate labels for different languages, e.g. English, French, Chinese, but the existence of labels should not delude us into believing that these are linguistically well-defined entities. One criterion used to define a language is MUTUAL INTELLIGIBILITY. According to this, people who can understand each other speak the same language, whereas those who cannot do not. But there are degrees of comprehension. For example, southern British speakers of English may have difficulty understanding Tyneside English, and American English speakers may find it virtually incomprehensible. There is even less mutual intelligibility in the group of ‘dialects’ referred to as Chinese: North Chinese speakers of Mandarin, for example, cannot understand Cantonese, though both use the same written language. On the other hand, in Scandinavia, speakers of Norwegian, Danish and Swedish can often understand one another, even though they speak what are called different languages. If Scandinavia were one political entity, then these languages might be considered dialects of just one language. So the criteria for defining languages, rather than being strictly linguistic, are often political and geographical.

1.4.2 Grammatical rules in English and other languages

If a language variety is viewed as a standard language rather than as a dialect (usually for non-linguistic reasons), then it has more social prestige. This partly explains, for example, the recent proliferating official recognition of distinct languages in Europe, where previously these had been ‘officially’ disregarded as dialect varieties: Catalan, Galician, Ulster Scots, Macedonian, Croat, to mention a few. When a language variety does not have social prestige, its grammatical forms are sometimes condemned as uneducated, as ‘bad grammar’. This is true of the rule of multiple negation in some English dialects, for example. This rule allows sentences such as *I didn’t see nothing* (‘I didn’t see anything’), which do not occur in the standard. The high prestige of standard English leads people to claim that multiple negation is wrong because it is illogical or misleading. However, we have never heard French speakers complain about multiple negation in standard French, which has *Je n’ai rien vu*, containing two negative elements *n’* and *rien*, as a translation of the English sentence. Also, Chaucer had no qualms about the matter when he wrote (in the *Prologue* to the *Canterbury Tales*):

He *never* yet *no* vileynye *ne* sayde
In al his lyf unto *no* maner wight.

(‘He *never* yet *didn’t* speak *no* discourtesy
in all his life to *no* kind of person’.)

In fact, not content with double negation, Chaucer uses four negatives in these two lines! Multiple negation was perfectly acceptable in the fourteenth century.

It is important for English speakers of whatever variety to realise that other languages or varieties can have their own grammatical rules. We cannot assume that other languages or varieties will fit the framework of the one we know well. This kind of mistake was made in the past by classical scholars who tried to describe English in the framework of Latin. For example, the prescriptive rule that *It is I* is right and *It is me* is wrong comes from assuming that the distinction between *I* and *me* must be the same as the distinction made in Latin between *ego* and *me*. This rule is not at all descriptive, since *It is me* occurs often in English.

Many of us first encounter grammatical rules different from our own when we learn a foreign language such as French, German or Spanish. We find that, for example, the rules of word order in these languages are different from those found in English. In French a pronoun like *le* has to precede the verb rather than follow it. So, for example, *I see him* is translated as *Je le vois* (literally, *I him see*). In German, certain forms of the verb must be placed at the end of the sentence, so that, for example, *I will go tomorrow* is translated as *Ich werde morgen gehen* (literally, *I will tomorrow go*). In Spanish a subject like *usted* comes after a past participle in a question rather than before it, so that, for example, *Have you forgotten the word?* is translated as *¿Ha olvidado usted la palabra?* (literally, *Have forgotten you the word?*). However, French, German and Spanish still show considerable similarity to English in their grammar: all four languages belong to the INDO-EUROPEAN family of languages. In all four, for example, you can form questions by changing the order of words in the sentence. This is not true of all languages, though: in Japanese, which is not an Indo-European language, questions are formed by the addition of a particle (*ka*) at the end of the sentence. So *Suzuki-san wa ikimasu* means *Mr/Ms Suzuki is going*, while *Suzuki-san wa ikimasu ka?* means *Is Mr/Ms Suzuki going?*

These examples serve to show that we need to avoid preconceptions about the form which grammatical rules will take in a given language or language variety. Instead, we can find out what these rules are by observing the way people speak or write in different situations. Once we have done this, we can return (as this book does in Chapter 12) to questions of appropriate usage.

1.5 Grammar and effective communication

The main function of language is to communicate with other people. We said in section 1.2 that in the language itself there is no such thing as ‘good’ or ‘bad’ grammar. It is reasonable, however, to distinguish between good and bad **communication**. In other words, language use should not be evaluated according to what kind of grammatical rules it follows, but according to whether it conveys its message effectively. It is quite possible, for example, to speak or write according to the grammatical rules of standard English, and yet to produce language which is unclear or difficult to follow. This can be

described as ‘bad style’, and the following examples from written English illustrate the point:

- (1) This is a picture that a girl that a friend of mine knows painted.
- (2) I saw it in a book that a former teacher of mine thought of at one time setting us some exam questions out of.
- (3) If a bomb drops near you, don’t lose your head – put it in a bucket and cover it with sand.
- (4) For sale: a piano belonging to a lady going abroad with an oak case and carved legs.
- (5) The problem of what contribution the public should make to the swimming pool arose.
- (6) She has given that part-time job in San Francisco up.

There is little doubt that these sentences are grammatical, according to the standard rules for constructing sentences in English. But it is interesting to consider why these sentences strike us as being ‘unhappy’ in their construction. In (1) and (2) the sentences are put together in a way which makes them difficult to unravel and understand. For example, in (1) who painted the picture – the girl or the friend? Most people will have to reread the sentence in order to puzzle out exactly what is going on. In (3) and (4) the construction of each sentence leads to an ambiguity: what the writer intended to say is not clearly stated. This does not necessarily imply that the reader cannot work out the intended meaning. You are unlikely, for instance, to imagine a lady with an oak case and carved legs in (4). But you arrive at this conclusion **in spite of** the grammar rather than **because of** it. The grammar allows a second meaning which, like an after-image, lurks distractingly in the background. In (5) and (6) the difficulty is that there seems to be a lack of balance, a ‘top-heaviness’, in the construction of each sentence. To solve this difficulty, one could change the order of the words as follows:

- (5a) The problem *arose of* what contribution the public should make to the swimming pool.
- (6a) She has given *up* that part-time job in San Francisco.

At this stage we do not attempt to explain exactly what is the matter with (1)–(6); it is enough to note that we see here three types of difficulty in forming and interpreting grammatical sentences: confusing structure (1 and 2), ambiguity (3 and 4), unbalanced structure (5 and 6).

Since using language is a skill, it is not surprising that some people are more skilled at it than others. There is no need to shrink from evaluation of this skill – for example, saying that one writer has a better style of writing than another. But it is helpful, for this purpose, to be aware of the grammatical resources of the language, and the various possibilities open to the user who wants to make effective use of the language. In this way we gain conscious control over the skill of using language. This is one of the main reasons for learning about grammar, and we return to it in Chapters 12 and 13.

1.6 Conclusion

At the other extreme from sentences (1)–(6) are the products of literary masters of prose style. One additional reason for studying grammar is that we can gain an appreciation of how literary writers use language for powerful effects. However, this chapter is already long enough, and the literary topic is one we will have to leave for the next chapter.

Meanwhile, in this chapter we have aimed to provide a backcloth for the study of English grammar. We began with an attempt to ‘demythologise’ the subject: that is, to dispel some misconceptions about grammar which have been prevalent in the past, and still have influence today.

We showed how the notion of grammar must allow for variation in language, and that we cannot prescribe the form which grammatical rules will take. There is no grammatical analogue of the Ten Commandments. We thus rejected the possibility of evaluating grammar out of context, but went on to begin showing how grammar can be used for more effective or less effective communication. In Part C of this book we will return to some of the points we have raised only briefly and simply so far, and we will also illustrate the practical benefits of studying grammar for understanding our language and using it more effectively.

Part B, which follows the next chapter, aims to make you aware of your knowledge of how standard English is structured. We shall be introducing grammatical terminology and techniques of analysis that will enable you to describe this structure. A large part of understanding grammar is learning how to do it, so we would urge you to work through the exercises in each chapter in order to apply your new knowledge.

EXERCISES

Exercise 1a (answers on p. 209)

True/false questionnaire (to test your understanding of the chapter)

Label the following statements either ‘true’ or ‘false’:

1. The study of grammar has to include the study of Latin.
2. Grammar can be seen as a set of rules that we follow when we use language.
3. We can follow the grammatical rules of our native language without knowing them consciously.
4. The study of grammar will improve your spelling.
5. Grammar only deals with the study of writing, because it originally meant ‘to write’ in Greek.
6. Children have to be properly tutored in their language if they are to learn to speak grammatically.
7. Studying grammar involves learning how people should speak.
8. It is incorrect to end a sentence with a preposition.
9. American English is less grammatical than British English.
10. The way we speak depends, among other things, on our personal characteristics.

11. The way we speak to friends is identical to the way we speak to strangers.
12. Dialect is inferior to the standard language.
13. Manual workers in the north and south of Britain differ more in their speech than do doctors.
14. The term *tenor* refers to the pitch of your voice in a given situation.
15. Whatever you can convey in speech, you can equally well convey in writing.
16. The English language as used in medicine could be considered a language domain.
17. All languages follow the same grammatical rules.
18. A sentence which is difficult to understand must be ungrammatical.

Exercise 1b (answers on pp. 209–10)

Classification of sentences

All of the following sentences appear to have something ‘wrong’ with them. Try to work out whether each is:

- A** ungrammatical in the sense that it does not follow a rule observable in the language behaviour of competent speakers of English;
- B** ‘incorrect’ – i.e. ‘bad etiquette’ from the point of view of prescriptive grammar (see 1.2); or
- C** ‘bad style’ in the sense that it does not communicate effectively (see 1.5).

In the case of C, decide whether the ‘bad style’ is due to confusing structure, ambiguity or unbalanced structure.

1. I can recommend this candidate for the post for which he applies with complete confidence.
2. I ain’t going nowhere tonight.
3. We need more experienced teachers.
4. To was or not to was, that be the ask.
5. Me and Jasmin are going to the beach today.
6. How are you, it has a long time that we don’t have heard from you again.
7. The principal of the college gave a timely piece of advice to me once.
8. They will tomorrow arrive.
9. Eggs should be stamped with the date when they are laid by the farmer.
10. Where’s those books you told me about?

Exercise 1c (answers and sources on p. 210)

Identifying categories of language use (see 1.3.3)

Identify the categories of language use in these samples of language, as follows:

Tenor: relatively formal or informal
Mode: spoken or written
Domain: advertising, journalism, politics or religion

Example: After reading this, other central heating systems won’t look so hot.
Tenor: informal *Mode:* written *Domain:* advertising.

1. STUNNING Rachel Hunter has dumped pop superstar Robbie Williams because she can no longer cope with his 'paranoia', The Sun can reveal.
2. Praise and glory and wisdom, thanksgiving and honour, power and might, be to our God for ever and ever! Amen.
3. America has entered a great struggle that tests our strength, and even more our resolve. Our nation is patient and steadfast.
4. MSN Messenger: the most popular, fun and personal way to chat online.
5. So what's likely to happen now? Well the report has been sent to the Director of Public Prosecutions, in view of er certain evidence.

Index

Notes

- 1 Major or defining page references are printed in bold type.
- 2 See pages xiv–xvi for symbols and conventions.

- a/an* *see* indefinite article
abstract noun 35, 53
accent 7
active *see* voice
actor *see* agent
addressee 9, 94, 143–4, 149–50, 156–9, 161–2, 167
adjective 24–5, 33–5, 42, 49, 55–6, 71–2, 76, 110, 180; irregular 56; tests 55–6 *see also* comparative, gradable, non-gradable and superlative
adjective
adjectival clause *see* relative clause
adjective phrase 42, 44, 55–7, 66, 71
adverb 33–4, 42, 49, 57–8, 71, 76, 110, 149–50, 180; circumstantial, degree and sentence (attitude, connective) ~ 57–8; relative ~ 109–10; ~ tests 57–8; ~ vs preposition 60–1
adverb phrase 42, 44, 57, 66, 76
adverbial 45, 57, 74, 76, 85–7, 206; ~ movement 57, 87, 130; ~ optionality 57, 87; sentence ~ 87; ~ tests 86–7; ~ types 87, 108, 112–13
adverbial clause 106, 108; tenseless ~ 112–13; ~ sub-classes 108–9, 112–13
advertising 164–8
affirmative, strong *see* emphatic sentences; negation
affix 20–1; *see also* prefix, suffix
agent (or actor) 44; *by*-adverbial 93, 96
alternative analyses 115, 130–3 *S.a.* fuzzy boundaries; multiple classification; overlap
ambiguity 13, 201, 204; grammatical ~ (examples) 102, 108, 122; ‘garden path’ ~ 201
and *see* coordinating conjunctions
antecedent 203–4
apposition 72
article *see* definite ~; determiner; indefinite ~;
aspect, perfect/progressive 77–9, 178–9; *see also* tense
attitude adverb 58
author–reader situation 177
auxiliary verb 45, 50, 61–2, 77–80, 89 *see also* aspect; modality; tensed; operator, voice
basic structure 123–6 *see also* clause pattern; constituent structure; derived structure; structure-changing rule
be 36, 56, 62, 77–8, 80, 94, 135 *see also* copula; operator
blends, grammatical 149
boundaries *see* fuzzy
bracketing xv, 38–9, 43–4, 45, 67–9, 104, 114, 118, 160–1 *see also* labelling; tree diagram
branching coordination 128
by *see* agent
case, pronouns 83
catenative constructions 131, 133–4
channel 10
character–character/–reader situation 177
chiasmus 175
circumstance adverb 57–8; ~ types 58
class, grammatical 42–3, 49–52 *see also* clause ~; closed ~; open ~; parts of speech (word), phrase ~;
clause 36–8, 43–4, 85–101, 104–14, 117, 131–5, 146–7; ~ classes 107–14; tensed/tenseless ~ 77, 89–90 *see also* adverbial ~; catenative; comparative ~; coordination; *en-* ~, infinitive ~; *ing-* ~; main noun ~; prepositional ~; relative ~; subordinate ~;

- clause elements 43–4, 85–7, 91, 93–4, 97, 106, 113–14, 146–7; ~ hierarchy 85
 S.a. adverbial; complement; object;
 predicator; subject
- clause pattern 94–6
- clause structure 74, 85–101, 146–7, 160–1, 165, 180
- clause-within-clause *see* direct subordination
- clause-within-phrase/-word *see* indirect subordination
- cleft, clefting 134–5
- closed classes 49–50, 59–63 *see also* open classes
- cohesion 135, 176–9
- collective noun 54, 190
- command *see* imperative mood
- common noun 53
- communication 12–13, 142–3, 162;
 sub-logical ~ 174
- comparative adjective 55–6, 75, 167;
 ~ adverb 58; ~ clause 110, 114, 126–7, 222
- complement 45, 55, 70–1, 75, 85–6, 93–7, 105
- complex sentence 87–9, 104–5, 198
- complex word 20
- complexity, grammatical 72, 115–19, 135–6, 147–8; ~ and style 141–3, 159, 160–1, 165, 180, 197, 201, 206; ~ location 147–8, 161, 206 *see also* alternative analyses; coordination; subordination
- composite labels xv, 112
- composition 196–206
- compound word 22, 29, 114; ~ noun 228
- conative function 163–4, 166
- conciseness 203–4
- concord 85–6, 92, 190; notional vs grammatical ~ 190 *see also* number; person; grammatical
- concrete noun 34, 53
- conjunction 50, 61, 94, 106, 107–10, 113, 178; coordinating ~ 61, 117–19;
 correlative ~ 61; ~ omission 107, 119; subordinating ~ 61, 106–10
- connective adverb 58
- constituent 33, 39–40, 42, 67; split ~ 87, 91–2, 129, 136, 201
- constituent structure 123–4 *see also* structure-changing rule
- context 156–7, 176–9
- contractions 80, 154, 166
- conversation 128, 144–51, 164
- coordinates 118
- coordinating conjunction 61, 117–19;
 ~ omission 119; sentence initial ~ 185
- coordination 88–9, 104–5, 117–19, 127–8, 153, 199; ~ and pronouns 188–9;
 correlative ~ 61; ~ reduction, structure-changing rule 127–8;
 unlinked ~ 119, 128, 181
- copula 56, 94 *see also* *be*
- count noun 53
- criteria *see* tests/criteria
- dangling participle/tenseless clause 192–3
- declarative 90, 94, 128, 174
- definite article (*the*) 35, 53, 59, 72
- degree adverb 57–8
- demonstrative determiner/pronoun 72–4, 178
- derivational suffix 24–6
- derived structure 123–37 *see also* basic structure; structure-changing rule
- descriptive grammar 5–6, 12 *see also* prescription
- determiner 50, 59, 71, 72–4, 178 *see also* definite and indefinite article
- diagram *see* skeleton analysis; tree diagram
- dialect 7–9, 10–11
- direct address 166; ~ question/statement / speech/thought 178
- direct object 93–7 *see also* indirect object; object
- direct subordination 114–15
- discontinuous *see* split
- discourse 141; ~ analysis 141–53, 156–68, 172–81; ~ situation 177–9; spoken vs written ~ 150–1 *see also* domain; mode; tenor
- discourse linking *see* cohesion
- disfluency 149
- do* 62, 80, 91, 222 *see also* dummy operator; operator; primary verbs
- domain of discourse 9–10, 141, 159, 162–8
- double analysis *see* alternative analyses
- double negation 11
- dummy operator (*do*) 80, 91, 222
- dummy subject (*it, there*) 134–6
- elegant variation 163, 178, 205
- elements of clause structure 43–4, 85–7, 91, 93–4, 97, 106, 113–14 *see also* adverbial; clause structure; complement; function; object; predicator; subject
- elements of phrase structure *see* head, modifier
- ellipsis 127–8, 137, 174, 178, 191–2, 202–4; and pronouns 188
- emphatic sentences 91, 222 *see also* negation
- empty subject (*it, there*) 134–6
- en-* clause 97, 113
- en-* verb (Ven) 54–5, 97
- end-focus 18, 174, 199–201;
 ~ -weight 135–6, 174, 199–201
- enumerators (cardinal, ordinal) 50, 60, 71
- existential particle (*there*) 135;
 ~ sentence 135
- explicitness 144, 150

- expressive function 163–4;
 ~ repetition 205
 extraposition 135–6
- familiar discourse/address *see* politeness
 figures of speech 174–6, 181
 final position 201
 finite *see* tensed
 first position 201
 fluency 149
 focus 92, 174, 199–201
for: indirect object 93, 136; infinitive clause
 subject 97
 form class 42–3, 49 *see also* clause classes;
 phrase classes; parts of speech
 form, grammatical 35, 42, 43, 46, 51, 53, 54,
 55, 58; ~ labels xiv, 45
 form of speech vs writing 143–50
 formality/informality 9, 150, 154, 156–9,
 162, 166–8
 Fowler, H. W. 186, 189, 205
 free indirect speech/thought 178
 frequency 173
 fronting 124–5, 134, 136
 full verb 49, 50, 54–5, 81 *see also*
 auxiliary; verb
 function class *see* elements;
 grammatical 43–6; ~ labels xiv, 45,
 116–17
 functions of language 142–3, 163–4, 205
see also conative, expressive,
 metalinguistic, phatic, poetic and
 referential function
 fuzzy boundaries 35–6, 41, 50, 71, 164;
 ~ categories 36 *see also* alternative
 analyses; multiple classification;
 overlap
- gender (feminine, masculine, neuter) 83, 191
 gender variation (female, male) 8–9
 generic masculine 191
 genitive: in advertising 165–6; ~ *ing*-clause
 subjects 97; ~ particle (-'s) 67, 75;
 ~ phrase 66–7, 71, 73, 75, 115,
 165–6; ~ pronoun *see* possessive
 ghost element *see* omission
 given information 200
 Gowers, Sir Ernest 186
 gradable adjectives 55–6 *see also* degree
 adverb
 grammar 3–5, 7, 36, 123, 184–94; ~ and
 writing 196–206; authority 186;
 good vs bad ~ 5–6, 184–6; ~ in
 style 173–4
 grammatical blends 149; ~ markers 59,
 62, 66, 106 (*see also* particles);
 ~ prescription 5–6, 184–6; ~ rule 3,
 6, 11–12; ~ test 40–2, 50–2 (*see also*
 tests); ~ unit 36, 38, 43–4, 97–9 *see also*
also class; complexity; concord; form;
 function; subordination; structure
- grammatical discretion, principle of 186
 grammaticality 12–13, 15, 123–4
- have* 61–2, 77, 78–80 *see also* operator
 head 44–5, 52, 55, 57, 59, 66, 70–1, 73–6,
 109 *see also* key word
 hearer *see* addressee
 historic present 177
how 91
 hypercorrection 189
- idioms 74–5; prepositional ~ 50 *see also*
 phrasal and prepositional verbs
 imperative 89–92, 150, 166
 impersonal 9, 158, 161
in order (to) 113
 incomplete sentences *see* ellipsis
 indefinite article (*a/an*) 53, 59, 72–3
 indirect object 93–7 (*see also for*; object;
to); ~ postponement 136, 223
 indirect speech/thought 178; question/
 statement 107
 indirect subordination 114–15, 116–17
 inexplicitness 144, 150, 153
 infinitive 78–9, 89; ~ clause 97, 112–14;
 ~ particle (*to*) 89, 97 split ~ 184
 inflection, inflectional suffix 24–6, 50–1
 informality *see* formality
 information packaging 199–200 *see also*
 new information
ing-clause 97, 112–14, 189; ~ noun
 clauses 112, 189; ~ verb (*Ving*) 54,
 79
- initial position 200
 interaction features 149, 153
 interjection 50, 62, 94
 interrogative, question 12, 80, 90–2, 125,
 128, 150 *see also wh*-interrogative/
 question; *yes-no*-interrogative/question
 interrupted element *see* split constituent
 irregularity 174–6
it *see* cleft sentence; pronouns; prop subject
- Jabberwocky* 35, 41, 46
 Johnson, Samuel 187
- keyword 41–2 *see also* head; main verb
- labelling xiv–xvi, 43–6, 80, 85, 87, 98–101,
 115–19 *see also* bracketing; tree
 diagram
 labels, composite xv, 112
 language variety 6–10; spoken vs written
 ~ 4, 141–54 *see also* speech; writing
 languages other than English 10–12
 Latin 4, 12, 51, 149, 186
 length of sentences 147–8, 174, 197–8
 lexis, vocabulary 7, 161, 165, 167–8, 173,
 180
 literature 17–20, 142, 172–81

- location of complexity 147–8, 161, 206
 logical object/subject 130, 134
- main clause 87–92, 94, 115–19, 198
see also coordination; subordinate clause
- main phrase 67–9
- main verb 45, 54, 62, 77–8, 81, 89, 96–7 *see also* auxiliary; *key word*
- marked order 125, 174, 201;
 ~ structure 93, 136 *see also* order; structure-changing rule; unmarked
- masculine, generic 191
- mass noun 53, 175
- meaning 51, 53, 55–8 *see also* semantic definitions
- metalinguistic function 163–4
- metaphor 166, 174–5, 181; ~ in advertising 166
- mimetic 176
- misattached tenseless clause 193
- missing elements *see* omission
- mobile elements 87, 94, 130
- modal verbs 61–2, 77–9
- mode of discourse 9–10, 141–54, 167–8
- modifier 44–5, 57, 66–7, 71–6, 109–10, 206 *see also* postmodifier; premodifier
- monitoring features 149–50, 153, 167
- mood *see* declarative; imperative; interrogative
- morpheme 20–6, 37
- morphology 20–6
- multiple classification 51–2, 162–4
see also alternative analyses; fuzzy boundaries; overlap
- multiple negation 11
- negation 80, 84, 91, 222 *see also* emphatic sentences; multiple negation
- neutralisation 83
- new information 134, 166, 174, 200
- node 45
- non-clausal units 145–6
- non-fluency *see* disfluency
- non-gradable adjectives 56
- non-standard language *see* standard language
- non-verbal signals 143, 167
- not/-n't* *see* negation
- notation *see* xiv–xvi
- notional concord 190
- noun 24–5, 33–6, 42, 49, 52–4, 71, 180, 190 *see also* abstract, collective, common, concrete, count, mass and proper noun
- noun clause 105, 107, 110, 132; tenseless ~ 112; ~ postponement 199; ~ subject 189
- noun phrase 37, 42, 44–5, 52–3, 55, 59–61, 66, 70–5, 86, 109, 161, 167, 174; structure 71–2, 147, 165–6
- number, concord 85–6, 190; noun ~ 53–4; plural ~ 36, 53–4, 190; singular ~ 53–4, 190
- numbers *see* enumerators
- object 43–4, 70, 83, 85–6, 93–7, 105, 130–1, 180; direct/indirect ~ 93–7; ~ fronting 124–5, 136, 223; logical ~ 130
- object complement 94 *see also* complement
- object pronouns 83, 187–9
- obligatory elements 94–6;
 ~ adverbial 96 *see also* clause pattern; optional
- omission of elements 119, 126–8; ~ of logical subject 134 *see also* ellipsis, optional, zero clause
- open classes 49–58 *see also* closed classes
- operator verb 50, 61–2, 78–80, 91–2, 135 *see also* auxiliary; full verb; modal; primary verbs
- optional elements 44–5, 66, 87, 94–5 *see also* obligatory
- order of elements 44, 77–8, 85–7, 91–2, 95, 106, 124–5, 201, 203; basic ~ 124–8; marked ~ 174, 201 *see also* clause patterns; marked; structure-changing rules; unmarked
- orders *see* imperative mood
- overlap of categories 59–61, 72–4, 150, 162 *see also* alternative analyses; fuzzy boundaries; multiple classification
- parallelism 17–20, 168, 175–6, 181; of form and meaning 175
- parsing 33, 39–40, 97–101, 120–1, 123, 128, 133
- particle, grammatical 12, 62, 66, 74–5, 80, 89, 94, 136
- participle 79 (*see also* aspect, *en-* and *ing-* verb); dangling ~ 192–3
- Partridge, Eric 186
- parts of speech 33–5; *see also* closed and open classes
- passive *see* voice; ~ clause patterns 96; ~ structure-changing rule 130, 134 *see also* agent
- past tense *see* tense
- perfect aspect 77–9
- peripheral elements 85, 94
- person, grammatical 83, 85;
 ~ concord 85–6, 190; first/second/third ~ 78, 83; third ~ verb marking 78
- person addressed *see* addressee
- personal 169, 166, 168
- personal pronouns 72–4, 83, 162–6, 175, 178, 187–9, 202 *see also* pronouns
- phatic function 163–4

- phonology 4, 18
 phrasal verbs 74–5, 163
 phrase 36–7, 44–6, 66–81, 117, 199;
 ~ classes 42–3, 66–81; main/
 subordinate ~ 67–9 *see also* adjective,
 adverb, genitive, noun, prepositional
 and verb phrase
 phrase order 12, 124
 phrase-within-phrase *see* direct
 subordination
 phrase-within-word *see* indirect
 subordination
 plain form of word 55, 56
 plural *see* number
 poetic function 163–4, 168; ~ licence 19
 poetry 19–20, 168, 176
 point of view 177–9
 polar interrogative *see* *yes–no* interrogative
 politeness 157–8, 162
 popular (style) 158–9
 position, final/initial 200 *see also* order of
 elements
 possessive determiner 72–3, 83
 possessive pronoun 72–3, 83
 postmodifier 66–7, 71–2, 74–6, 109–11,
 136–7 *see also* modifier
 postponement 134–6; extraposition 136,
 199; ~ of postmodifier 136–7,
 223 *see also* end-weight
 predicator 43–4, 54, 77, 85–6, 91–2, 94–7,
 106 *see also* main verb
 prefixes 20, 26
 premodifier 66–7, 71–2, 75 (*see also*
 modifier); order of premodifiers 82,
 215–16
 preposition 45, 50, 60–1, 62, 67, 74–5, 93,
 110–11; clause/sentence final ~ 185;
 stranded ~ 74, 110; ~ vs
 adverb 60–1, 74–5
 prepositional clause 110–11, 114
 prepositional phrase 37, 42, 45, 60–1,
 72, 74, 75–6, 92, 96–7, 110–11, 114–15,
 127, 136
 prepositional verbs 74–5
 prescription 5–6, 11, 184–7
 prescriptive rules 184–94
 present tense *see* tense
 primary verbs 61–2, 77–9 *see also* *be*; *do*;
 have
 pro-form 203
 progressive aspect 77–9, 178–9
 pronouns 12, 50, 59–60, 71, 72–3, 83,
 144, 178; ~ antecedent 203–4;
 ~ prescription and usage 187–8 *see*
 also case; gender; number; person;
 object, personal, possessive, reflexive,
 relative and subject pronoun
 prop subject (*it*, *there*) 134–6
 proper noun 53
 prose 17–19, 172–82
 punctuation 143
 quantifier determiner/pronoun 72–3
 question *see* interrogative
 rank, rank scale 37–9, 67, 70, 98, 114, 117,
 127; mixed ~ 137
 reduced forms *see* contractions
 reduction 202 *see also* ellipsis
 referential function 163–4, 165–6, 205
 reflexive pronoun 83
 regional variation 7
 register 9–10
 relative adverb 109
 relative clause 71, 109–10, 111, 113, 126;
 tenseless ~ 113
 relative pronoun 109–10, 126
 ~ omission 109–10, 126
 repetition 148–9, 153; expressive ~ 178,
 181, 202, 205; ~ of degree adverbs 76
 reported questions/statements 107
 request *see* imperative mood
 rules of grammar 3, 6, 11–12, 123
 -'s *see* genitive
 semantics 4–5
 semantic definitions 34–5 *see also*
 meaning
 sentence 36–8, 97–101, 104–5, 141, 144–6
 (*see also* clause; complex and simple
 sentence); ~ adverb 57–8;
 ~ adverbial 86–7, 108;
 ~ boundary 144–6, 153, 167;
 ~ complexity 104–5, 147–8, 197–9;
 incomplete ~ 144, 149, 167, 174, 228
 (S.a. ellipsis); ~ length 148, 165,
 197–8
 sentence relative clause 108–9
shall vs *will* 186
 simple sentence 87, 97–101, 104–5, 197–8
 simple structure *see* complexity
 simplicity (style) 196–201
 singular *see* number
 situation *see* context; author–reader/
 character–character/character–reader
 ~ 177
 skeleton analysis xvi, 115–17
 speaker 9, 151, 156–9
 specialist audience/readership 158–9
 speech 4, 9, 141–54, 167; ~ sounds (*see*
 phonology)
 split constituents 87, 91–2, 129, 136,
 202; *see also* stranded preposition
 split infinitives 184, 186
 spoken discourse 150–4; ~ language (*see*
 speech)
 standard language 7–9, 142, 186
 statement *see* declarative
 stranded preposition 74, 110, 133
 structure, grammatical 66–121 *see also*
 basic and derived structure
 structure-changing rule 124–5, 134–7; *see*
 also basic and derived structure
 structure-changing rule and style 134, 201

- style 9, 12–14, 17–20, 134, 172–81, 205
 stylistic analysis 172–81
 stylistic structure-changing rule 134–7
 subject 44, 56, 70, 83, 85–6, 91–7; *for* ~ 97;
 genitive ~ 97, 189; logical ~ 131, 134;
 ~ of tenseless clause 97; possessive
 ~ 97, 189; pronoun substitution
 test 86; ~ raising 131–3;
 subject–verb concord 85–6, 89–90
 subject complement 55, 94 *see also*
 complement
 subject pronouns 83, 188–9
 subjectless clause 97
 subordinating conjunction 61, 106–10
 subordination 67–70, 104–15, 147–8, 153,
 161, 168, 206; direct vs indirect
 ~ 114–15; grammatical markers of
 ~ 106–7; ~ in composition 198–9
 sufferer 44
 suffixes 20–6, 50–8
 superlative adjective 55–6, 76;
 ~ adverb 57
 tag question 128, 222
 tenor of discourse 9–10, 141, 156–62, 166–8
 tense, past/present, 55, 78, 89–92,
 177–8 *see also* aspect; historic present
 ~ 177
 tensed clause 77, 89–90, 107–11, 131–2;
 ~ main verb 89; ~ operator 80, 89,
 91–2; ~ predicator 92; ~ subordinate
 clause 107–111, 198–9; ~ verb 78–9,
 89; ~ verb phrase 77–80, 89, 92 *see*
 also tensed; tenseless
 tensedness 77–80, 89–90, 92, 97 *see also*
 concord; tensed; tenseless; tense
 tenseless clause 77, 89–90, 97, 112–14;
 dangling/misattached/unattached
 ~ 192–3
 tenseless predicator 92, 97, 106;
 ~ subordinate clause 112–14, 199;
 ~ verb 78–9, 97; ~ verb
 phrase 89–90, 92 *see also* tensed; tense
 test, grammatical 40–2, 50–2
 tests; concord 85, 89; expansion 40;
 tensed 92; movement 41, 86–7;
 substitution 40–1; subtraction 41,
 86; *that*-insertion 107
than 110, 126–7
that 107, 109, 112, 134–5; ~ insertion
 test 107
that-clauses 107, 109, 112
the *see* definite article
there *see* adverb; existential particle; prop
 subject
to: indirect object 93–4, 136, 223; infinitive
 particle 89–90, 96–7
to be *see be*
 tree diagram 21, 39–40, 43, 45, 69–70,
 98–101, 115–16, 130; abbreviated ~ 39,
 137–8; fully labelled ~ 39, 101; three-
 dimensional ~ 125; unlabelled
 ~ 39 *see also* bracketing; skeleton
 analysis
 typical speech vs writing 150–1
 unattached tenseless clause 192–3
 ungrammaticality 43, 46, 78, 123–4, 116–17,
 132, 137, 222
 unit, grammatical *see* grammatical units
 unlinked coordination 119, 128, 181
 unmarked order 125; ~ pronoun 189;
 ~ structure 93 *see also* basic
 structure; marked
 use, variation in language according to 6,
 9–10
 user, variation in language according to 6–9
 variation: in language 6–12; stylistic 206
 verb 25, 33–6, 42, 49–50, 54–5, 61–2, 72,
 77–8, 94–6, 180; compound/phrasal/
 prepositional ~ 74–5; ~ *-en* (Ven)/*ing*-
 (Ving) 54, 79; ~ forms 54, 78–80;
 irregular ~ 54, 62 *see also* auxiliary;
 full verb; operator; predicator; primary
 verb
 verb phrase 37, 39, 42, 45, 54, 61, 67, 77–80
very 57, 76
 vocabulary *see* lexis; coining of ~ 49–50
 vocative 94
 voice, active/passive 77–8, 93, 96, 130, 134,
 180, 201
wh-adverb 91; ~ -clause 107–10; ~ -
 determiner 72–4, 91; ~ -
 element 106–7, 100, 115; ~ -
 interrogative 91, 125; ~ -
 pronoun 72–4, 91; ~ -question (s. *wh*-
 interrogative); ~ -word 91–2, 107,
 109
wh-word fronting 91, 125
will vs *shall* 185
 word 36–7, 44, 49–63, 117 (*see also*
 adjective; adverb; closed classes; noun;
 parts of speech; verb); compound 22,
 29, 72, 74, 115; ~ structure 20–6
 word class *see* closed and open classes;
 parts of speech
 word order *see* phrase order
 word-within-word *see* direct subordination
 writing 4, 10, 144–54, 196–206;
 ~ system 5, 142–3
 written discourse 151–4; ~ language
 (s. writing)
yes-no interrogative/question 91, 107, 222
 zero clauses 107–10