A CRITICAL INVESTIGATION
OF THE
ROLE OF THE TEXTBOOK
IN THE
TEACHING OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR
(FIRST LANGUAGE, HIGHER GRADE)
IN THE
CONTEMPORARY CAPE SENIOR SCHOOL

by

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Form of Citation

In this Thesis a shortened form of reference has been used throughout.

For example: Palmer, F. (1971): Grammar, will appear as: Palmer (1971).

Details of all publications cited will be found under References (p. 145).

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This Thesis has not been submitted for a degree at any other university.

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Table of Contents

		Page
1.	INTRODUCTION	1
11.	THE ACADEMIC BACKGROUND	9
	2.1 The Aims: Pragmatic to Liberal	9
	2.2 The Grammars: Prescriptive to Descriptive	23
	2.3 The Liberal Aim: Mechanist to Mentalist	26
	2.4 The Grammars: Structural to Transformational	43
	2.5 Transformational Grammar: Recent Developments	50
111.	THE AIMS OF GRAMMAR TEACHING	53
	3.1 The Liberal Aim	54
	3.2 The Pragmatic Aim	57
1V.	THE CONTEXT	88
	4.1 The Educational Climate	88
	4.2 The Teacher: Training and Qualifications	107
V.	THE FEATURES OF THE TEXTBOOK	127
	5.1 Audiences and Circumstances	128
	5.2 Grammatical Descriptions	129
	5.3 Conclusion	144
REFERENCES		145
APPENDICES		
	Appendix A: ISEA Questionnaire 1973	A 1
	Appendix B: Syllabus for English (First Language) (Junior Secondary Course)	B 1
	Appendix C: Syllabus for English (Higher Grade) (Senior Secondary Course)	C 1
	Appendix D: Guide to Teachers on the Teaching of English Grammar	D 1
	Appendix E: Operation Grammar (Bound separately)	

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

'In Britain, however, and the South African Republic, the major linguistic studies of the past two hundred years have had relatively little effect upon language work in schools, and in particular upon school programmes for English as a mother-tongue.'[1]

'These reference works do not reflect the findings of modern linguistics. Grammar is treated on traditional lines, inspired by the study of Latin and Greek.'[2]

These two statements, although similar in that they both represent an indictment of school grammar, are the views of two different people who face each other across as enormous gulf. On the left we have a university professor, and on the right a school teacher. Each is looking in the other's direction: the university professor, who represents a progressive approach to language studies, is implying criticism of the schools for their verkramptheid; and the school teacher, who represents those teachers who regretfully have to admit that this is true, is implying the need to bridge the gap between the two institutions of learning.

There is, thus, a feeling on both sides that something must be done to bridge the gap. Both feel that the time has come when school grammar must be brought more in line with recent trends in linguistics. This feeling, however, is both a very recent and still a very tentative one.

In an article appropriately entitled 'The Grammarian's Resurrection' (published in 1965), Professor William Branford of Rhodes University pointed out that we have in recent times witnessed 'a period of discovery and speculation about language spanning the generation from Henry Sweet to Noam Chomsky'. At first, our university Departments of English lagged woefully behind those developments, offering purely literary courses (sometimes accompanied by a small Old and/or Middle English component), but refusing to acknowledge the need for systematic study

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[1] Dr William Branford, Professor of Linguistics at Rhodes University, in his book, A Manual of English Sentence Structure (1974).

[2] An English teacher who replied to the ISEA Questionnaire on the Teaching of English Grammar, sent to Cape High School teachers in 1973. (See Appendix A.)

of language in general and of Modern English in particular. Chapter 1V shows, however, that there have been some dramatic changes on the Linguistic front in some South African universities during the past decade: a number of English Departments have now opened up their defences and allowed a language component to become part of the general English course, while some universities have even gone so far as to set up separate Departments of Linguistics as well.

Meanwhile, in the schools a reverse process has been setting in. By contrast with the upsurge of interest in the phenomenon of language at university level, language studies - and in particular the study of formal grammar - have reached a low ebb in the schools. Grammar is no longer seen as the panacea for all linguistic ills: in fact, the move towards creativity has caused grammar to be regarded instead in some quarters as a deadly cancer (Chapter 1V). But not only is grammar felt to be useless and harmful - it is also being cast aside as an incredibly boring remnant of an obsolete approach to the teaching of English. In Britain the problem was solved by abolishing grammar altogether. Palmer (1971a) puts it thus:

> 'In more recent times most school children have been spared the boredom because the teaching of grammar has been dropped from the syllabus ...'
>
> (p. 7)

There are signs now in Britain that the pendulum is starting to swing back in favour of grammar in the schools, but not traditional school grammar: they are now looking to grammars based on modern linguistic research. In South Africa, on the other hand, the pendulum is still swinging strongly against grammar: two questionnaires sent out by the Institute for the Study of English in Africa - one in 1964 by Professor Branford and the other in 1973 by myself - show that among both teachers and pupils alike formal grammar is the most unpopular part of the English syllabus. A similar attitude prevails at an official level: recent refresher courses for teachers of English have practically ignored grammar, while the new syllabuses drawn up in 1973 have relegated grammar to the background and abolished direct examination of formal grammar from the external examinations (Chapter 1V and Appendixes B & C).

Yet paradoxically at the same time there are a few cries from the wilderness in this country that may succeed in stoppping the pendulum before it has completed its swing away from grammar: a few teachers are showing signs of curiosity about this new subject called Linguistics.

Disillusioned with the old traditional school grammar, they are beginning to look to the universities and Departments of Education for guidance about the 'new' grammars of Modern Linguistics. The Departments have not shown much interest: whereas in recent years they have, through new syllabuses and refresher courses for teachers, taken great pains to introduce the 'New Maths' and the 'New Science', they have made no attempt even to investigate the 'New Grammar'. For some time, the universities, too, were unconcerned about the state of grammar in schools: revelling in their newly won victory for Linguistics at university level, they showed little interest in the possible applications of their subject in the classroom. More recently, however, they have begun to show a desire to influence the school grammar programme. An example of this was a Conference on the topic of 'Linguistics in Teacher-Education' held in September 1975 at Rhodes University.

The plans at university level, laudable as they are, are nevertheless longterm: the aim is that in future students who qualify to teach one of the official languages will be qualified not only in literature but also in language, and especially in modern approaches to the study of language. This, however, does not solve the problem of the serving teacher who may wish to (or ought to) update his knowledge of grammar. What is really needed here is an official programme along the lines of the programmes that were organised to introduce the New Maths and the New Science. But this does not seem forthcoming in the immediate future. Therefore the interested teacher is left to act on his own initiative. If one considers the ways in which the dice are loaded against such a teacher, one realises that to update his knowledge on his own is almost an impossible task: there is a plethora of theories and a mountain of literature (much of it rather abstruse) to plough his way through; it must be remembered that the teacher is not merely behind as regards the latest theories of language, but also as regards all theories - and to understand the modern theories one often needs to know about earlier theories as well, discredited as they may now be. In addition, the teacher's knowledge even of Traditional grammar is very limited - since he has not studied it at university level, he knows only what he was taught at school and what he has subsequently taught himself, which means he has no theoretical springboard at all for launching out into an investigation of recent theories. Added to this is the fact that the teacher is heavily committed to many other duties at school, leaving little time for personal research.

It would seem, then, that the only way at present for the serving teacher to update himself is to be provided with textbooks for schools based on Linguistics. In fact, even if there were new syllabuses for grammar and refresher courses for teachers, the teacher would still need a textbook to guide him in his day-to-day application of linguistic theories in the classroom. The problem here is, as Professor Branford succinctly put it at the September Conference, that although 'Textbook materials for such a component [i.e. a linguistic component] are available both from local and overseas publishers, ... a really good language textbook for the English-speaking pupil in the South African senior school has still to be written'. The main complaint against those which are available is that formal grammar is given very cursory treatment. One of the respondents to the 1973 ISEA Questionnaire put it thus: 'Modern Language Textbooks contain very little in the way of formal grammar'. The only exception here is Rumboll and Walker's Comprehensive English Practice, used by a large number of the teachers in Cape Senior Schools (See Appendix A, Table 6). But even this is not enough. As the ratings of the teachers in Table 6 show, the majority feel that the formal grammar content is only 'fairly satisfactory'. Not only is it not extensive enough, but it does not really teach. As one teacher put it:

> 'Not enough help in formal grammar, i.e. plain explanation. The book does not TEACH; its stimulates - very much.'

Another teacher spelt out this problem in greater detail:

> 'Most available [modern] books do not give enough graded exercises to lead the pupils from the basic to the more complex as their grasp and knowledge of the language increases.'

In the Review of the Series which I wrote for Education (April 1973) further shortcomings were mentioned, the main one being that the 'linguistic' section is 'relegated to a postscript, thus leading to a number of faults owing to lack of space: some rather questionable classifications; an often illogical and impractical sequence of sections; a lack of integration between the old and the new'. As examples of the last complaint, it was pointed out that 'the sections on vocabulary and general usage are not related to the formal grammar' and that there is a lack of any marriage between the traditional grammar sections and the modern grammar sections of the books. The more recent editions have tried to rectify some of these faults, but still not extensively or thoroughly enough.

The result of this situation is, as Table 6 of Appendix A shows, that modern language textbooks are not chosen or used for formal grammar teaching but rather for their use in dealing with other aspects of language

study. For formal grammar, teachers are forced to fall back upon the traditional school texts, the most popular being Fletcher and Sceales's High School English and Coetzer and Vivier's High Grade English Course (no dates given). Not only are these not up-to-date, but they are also confusing and too full of minute detail. The only answer at present, then, seems to be that modern language textbooks should be used for general language work, but that these must be supplemented by a separate grammar text which would combine the best of the old and the new - it must be stimulating and not too detailed; it must teach; and it must be up-to-date.

It was with this background in mind that the investigation on which this Thesis is based was launched. It was felt that the main need was to inquire into the features of a textbook for the use of English-speaking pupils in Cape Senior Schools, with special reference to the relevance of Modern Linguistics to the features of such a textbook.

At this stage it is necessary to explain certain aspects of the Title of the Thesis, which clearly delimit the scope of the investigation and therefore of the Thesis. At the same time it must be stressed that the Thesis is obviously dealing with a universal problem - the problem of adapting an academic discipline to suit the school population, the teachers and other educational circumstances. The examination of a particular situation here is therefore undertaken both in the light of the general principles involved and as a means of illustrating these general principles by reference to the particular.

> 'A Critical Investigation of the Role of the Textbook in the Teaching of English Grammar (First Language, Higher Grade) in the Contemporary Cape Senior School.'

1. 'Textbooks': As was stated above, the stress in the Thesis is on the features of the textbooks. Thus matters such as the value of grammar in the school, methods of teaching, the training of teachers, syllabuses and examinations - all of these are dealt with only from the point of view of their effect upon the content of a textbook. No attempt is made to deal with all aspects of these matters.

2. 'First Language, Higher Grade': Since South Africa is a bilingual country, each child must study one of the official languages (usually his home language) as a first language and the other as a second language. The term 'Higher Grade' may be explained as follows: In 1974 the Cape Province instituted the new national system of 'Differentiated Education'

whereby, up to the end of the Junior Secondary Phase (i.e. Standard 7, approximately ages 14-15), subjects may be studied on one level only by all pupils. At this stage, the pupil has a choice as to whether he wishes to take subjects on the 'Higher' or the 'Standard' Grade in preparation for the two-level external Cape Senior Certificate Examination which is written at the end of the Senior Secondary Phase (i.e. Standard 10). In order to attain a Higher Grade Pass in a subject, a pupil must obtain a minimum of 34% in an examination set on the HG syllabus; and a Standard Grade pass by obtaining at least 34% in an examination set on the SG syllabus. A standard Grade pass may also be awarded by the Inspector of Education to a candidate who obtains a mark between 25% and 33% in an examination set on the HG syllabus. This distinction between Higher Grade and Standard Grade did not, however, immediately apply in the same way to the official languages, where at first 'Higher Grade' meant L1 and 'Standard Grade' L2. Since then the terminology has been altered to 'First Language' and 'Second Language' (as for the Junior Secondary Course) and it appears that the intention of the Department is eventually to offer the official languages on four levels: First Language (HG and SG) and Second Language (HG and SG). At present, however, they are offered only on the Higher Grade. Thus, to obtain an HG pass in English a pupil must obtain at least 34% in an examination set on the current syllabus for English Higher (Senior Secondary) (Appendix C). An SG pass may be obtained only by obtaining between 25% and 33% in the same examination. This Thesis, then, is concerned only with English as a First Language and where there is a distinction between Higher and Standard Grade (i.e. in the Senior Secondary Phase) with the Higher Grade only. What is said here, therefore, is not necessarily true also of English as a Second Language or of the approach to English First Language Standard Grade (if it were to be introduced in the future).

3. 'Cape Senior': The Thesis is concerned only with the Senior School (i.e. Standards 6 - 10; ages 12 - 17). Therefore there will be no discussion as such of the Junior School situation. Furthermore, the investigation is limited to the Cape Province only. Thus what is said here is not necessarily true in all respects of the other provinces. Much of what is said about the senior school is, of course, relevant to what ought to precede it in the junior school; furthermore, what is said about the Cape is also in varying degrees applicable to the other provinces too, since there is a 'Core Syllabus' on which all provinces must base their particular syllabuses - in fact, they may only add but not subtract from the Core Syllabus. Finally, as was mentioned earlier, the problem here is the same problem facing all schools anywhere in the world; thus the Thesis, in broad principles, has universal relevance.

4. 'Contemporary': The discussion in this Thesis is not, however, an idealistic, theoretical dissertation on grammar teaching and grammar texts. Much of what is said will, of course, be relevant to any situation. Nevertheless, the investigation is firmly grounded in the contemporary situation in the Cape. That is why the Thesis does not consist of an account of academic Linguistics and then a linear application of this in school textbooks. Instead, the outline is as follows:

Chapter 11: An account of the academic background - the aims and methods of Linguistics, as well as a definition of the term 'Grammar'.

Chapter 111: This Chapter turns from the academic world to the school situation, and asks what the aims of teaching grammar in the high school are, as opposed to those of linguists working in universities.

Chapter 1V: This Chapter continues the investigation of the school situation, this time turning to the contemporary educational context in which a textbook which sets out to achieve the aims discussed in the previous chapter operates.

Chapter V: The final Chapter sets out to investigate to what extent modern 'linguistic' grammars can update school grammar, by examining the features of a textbook that can achieve the aims mentioned in Chapter 111 in the context of the factors mentioned in Chapter 1V.

It is stressed throughout the Thesis that it is not possible or realistic merely to present schools with a 'linguistic' grammar. It is necessary to take into account the needs and abilities of the pupils and teachers who will use the textbook, as well as factors beyond the control of either - Departmental syllabuses and examinations and the training of teachers of English. The aim of the Thesis is to show what a grammar book that hopes to cope with this situation should look like. If this means a marriage between a number of different kinds of grammars, then this is the best text: the textbook writer may be forced to be eclectic. At the same time, a basic principle underlying the Thesis is that the grammar produced must nevertheless not compromise the integrity of the linguistic theories on which it is based. As an example of the kind of textbook discussed in

the final chapter, an Appendix is included entitled Operation Grammar: this is a sample text I have compiled, dealing only with syntax for pupils in Standard 8 (i.e. midway through the high school; ages 15 - 16).

5. 'Critical investigation': The word 'critical' here is meant to suggest that the Thesis is based on argument and research rather than on actual experimentation. This means that, although there is a survey of experiments in connection with certain aspects of the teaching of grammar, these are not discussed from an experimental point of view - i.e. no attempt is made to investigate in great detail their reliability or validity. Nor does the Thesis base itself particularly on original experimentation on the part of the author except insofar as Operation Grammar has been taught to numerous classes over a number of years and been revised in the process, and insofar as a Questionnaire was compiled, sent out and analysed by myself (Appendix A).

CHAPTER 11

The Academic Background

This Thesis, as was mentioned in Chapter 1, is concerned with the features of a textbook for English Grammar (First Language) in the high school, with special reference to the contribution of academic studies of English Grammar to the content and approach of such a textbook. It is therefore necessary, before analysing the school situation, to examine the background to the academic study of English Grammar.

We can take as a convenient starting-point the Eighteenth Century, since it was this century which produced the first large-scale grammars of English, the most famous and authoritative of these, according to Aldridge (1973), being Bishop Lowth's text entitled A Short Introduction to English Grammar, which he published anonymously in 1762.

2.1 The Aims: Liberal to Pragmatic

Gleason (1965) makes the point that men have been interested in their languages throughout the ages for two main reasons. Firstly:

> 'As one of the most remarkable, complex and familiar of human attainments, language has excited their curiosity. It is so much part of their human existence that to understand themselves they have seen that they must first understand language.'
>
> (p. 39)

Secondly, language has been studied for its practical value:

> 'At the same time, they have recognised the pragmatic value of the ability to manipulate it well.'
>
> (p. 28)

These two aims are related to the two meanings of the verb 'know': to know about, and to know how to. On the one hand, grammar has been studied in order to find out how language works; on the other hand to help people to express themselves more effectively. The first aim mentioned above is to discover and understand facts; the second is to improve speakers' skill in the use of the language.

The first aim, which sees grammar as an end in itself, we may call the 'liberal' aim, in the sense of a study pursued for its own sake. C.S. Lewis (1967) defines 'liberal' knowledge as follows:

> 'It seeks nothing beyond itself and desires the actuality of knowing for that activity's own sake.'
>
> (p. 113)

The other aim, which sees grammar as a means to an end, may, taking Gleason's cue, be called the 'pragmatic' aim.

During the Eiggteenth Century, it was mainly the pragmatic aim which motivated the English Grammarian to pursue his studies. His aim was a pedagogical one - to assist people to use their language more 'correctly'. In other words, the grammarian was interested in the structure of English because he wished to provide a description of the language which could be of use to the speakers of the language. Lowth (1762) therefore defines grammar as follows:

> 'The principal design of a Grammar of any language is to teach us to express ourselves with propriety in that Language; and to enable us to judge of every phrase and form of construction, whether it be right or not.'

Aldridge points out that this approach was not new, but that it was during Lowth's time that the pragmatic aim of 'correctness' reached its climax. At this time a significant development was taking place in the writing of grammars: previously, in studies of English, the idea of 'correctness' had been applied only at the level of the individual word; now it had come to be extended to the larger elements in language - to 'constructions' and 'phrases'. Aldridge (1973) sums up this change as follows:

> 'It was not until the second half of the eighteenth century ... that grammatical correctness, i.e. correctness of sentence-structure, began to play an important part in language studies.'
>
> (p. 3)

Priestley therefore saw the whole aim of writing grammars of particular languages as follows:

> '... the grammars contain all the rules and precepts necessary to make a person understand the structure of those languages in order to enable him either to use them with accuracy himself, or to understand another person who uses them.'
>
> (1762)

One's native language is not, of course, learnt in this way. Priestley admits that this is acquired 'by imitation only without precepts'. However, by studying the grammar of one's language, one would gain a conscious knowledge of its structure, and this would enable one to improve one's language ability:

> '... the rules of Grammar do very much facilitate the acquisition of this art and are of great use in order to make a person more exactly and extensively acquainted with a language that was first learned without their assistance.'

The question which arises from all this is: What does the speaker gain from knowing what the 'correct' form is ? It was felt that he would be more acceptable to the higher social classes if he were able to converse in a way which met with the approval of these social classes. Aldridge (1973) answers the question as follows:

> 'Correctness was associated more and more with good breeding, with being socially refined. Men with little interest in science and much in social prestige did not want to be told WHAT English speakers say, but what they SHOULD say and, as a result, scholars like Lowth and Johnson concentrated their attention to a very large degree on prescribing, or making judgments as to correctness, even though they may well have been unconscious of responding to so vulgar a requirement.'
>
> (p. 7)

These grammarians were not, however, only concerned with the gain of the speakers of English; they were also motivated - possibly more motivated - by a burning desire to maintain and improve the 'purity' of the language. It was believed that there is some 'ideal' form of the language, and they feared that if users of the language continued, in the words of Swift, to 'offend against every part of Grammar' - or, in the words of Warburg, to be guilty of the 'original linguistic sin' - then this Platonic standard would be tarnished and the language debased. Johnson in his Preface admitted that 'every language has its anomalies which, though convenient and in themselves once unnecessary, must be tolerated'. Nevertheless he still felt that they must be 'restricted' - which suggests that he too maintained that there was an inner purity; the only difference was that he felt that one had to be realistic and accept some changes as fait accompli. His belief in an inherent and original standard of purity is shown more strongly later in his Preface where he complains that English has 'been gradually departing from its Teutonic original' and stresses that it is their duty 'to recall it'. Some changes, therefore, were not to be tolerated. Thus, though Johson did not agree in all respects with the school of Lowth, he nevertheless had similar sympathies.

In order to preserve this ideal structure, it was felt that speakers must be encouraged to learn to use the 'correct' forms. In this way they hoped to resist further erosion by fostering the use of 'pure' structures as oppposed to the many 'impure' items which had been making

an appearance in the usage even of respectable and educated people. Some even hoped to repair the damage done - to encourage a return to older forms if these were 'purer' than the current ones.

Scholars were not entirely at one as to the means of ensuring the purity of the language. Some fought for the establishment of an Aacdemy, while others like Johnson violently opposed the idea. Everyone, however, agreed that there was a need to compile an authoritative dictionary and to write an authoritative grammar. The Eighteenth Century grammarians, therefore, aimed to contribute to this move by writing grammars which enshrined the 'correct' forms of the language. Speakers would then be provided with a reliable yardstick by which to judge their own speech and writing.

The individual gained, then, by being able to maintain or raise his social status; and the language againod by being able to be maintained or raised in it standard or purity.

The English English grammarian therefore saw English Grammar as 'the prescription of how, in our, or in anyone else's view, /people/ ought to speak' (Palmer: 1971a). The 'linguistic facts' which he set out to describe were not, then, the rules which are actually manifested in the speech and writing of users of the language, but what these rules ought to be. If the actual and the normative happened to coincide, this would be a fortuitous situation; however, if they did not, then native speakers would be urged to take steps to see that they did concur. And this they would achieve my 'learning their English Grammar'.

If they did not base their notions of 'correctness' on current usage, what did they use as their yardstick ? Sometimes Latin was taken as the standard. This came about as a result of the fact that grammars of individual languages were regarded as particular manifestations of 'Universal Grammar' (an idea which has been resurrected by Chomsky, but for different reasons). Universal Grammar was a reflection of man's Universal Reason and therefore the ultimate standard of 'correctness'. Harris (1751) defines Universal Grammar as 'that grammar which, without regarding several idioms of particular languages, only respects those principles which are essential to them all'. Lowth, in his Preface, echoes Swift's complaint about the English language:

'In many instances it offends against every part of Grammar.'

Ideally speaking, therefore, the 'correct rules' of English Grammar should be in alignment with the rules of Universal Grammar. No one seemed, however, to be exactly certain as to what these universal rules were. Harris - and others after him - tended to base their description of Universal Grammar on the grammars of classical Greek and Latin. This was probably inevitable. Most scholars of that time were deeply learned in Latin and sometimes Greek as well. In fact 'Grammar' schools were originally those schools which offered Latin Grammar as a subject. From earliest schooldays these scholars were conditioned to regard the classical languages as superior to the vernaculars. The aura of classical Greek and Latin cultures probably contributed to this image of the classical alnguages. They gave the appearance of being more 'logical' than English and thus closer to 'Universal Reason'. The fact that they were dead languages also made them seem immune to change and, since all change was corruption, they seemed, unlike English, to have maintained their pristine purity. The fact that English had shed many of its inflections also made it seem an 'easier' language and therefore not comparable with Latin or Greek.

Some writers like Lowth took great pains to avoid forcing English into a Latin mould. His definition of 'Universal Grammar' bears this out:

> 'Grammar is the art of rightly expressing ourselves in words. Grammar in general, or Universal Grammar, explains the principles which are common to all languages. The grammar of any particular language, as the English Grammar, applies those common principles to that particular language, according to the established usage and custom of it.'

In his Preface he explicitly criticises those who attempt to foist the grammar of Latin upon English:

> 'Much less will what is commonly called Learning serve the purpose /of providing a standard of correctness/; that is, a critical knowledge of antient languages, and much reading of antient authors: the greatest Critic and most able Grammarian of the last age, when he came to apply his learning and his Criticism to an English Author, was frequently at a loss in matters of ordinary use and common construction in his own Vernacular Idiom.'
>
> (p. 3)

He refuses thus to hunt down six cases for English nouns; he maintains that there are only two:

> 'The English in its Substantives has but two different terminations for Cases; that of the Nominative, which simply expresses the Name of the thing, and that of the Possessive Case.'
>
> (p. 18)

He does, however, sometimes look for the devices and distinctions of Latin grammar, and where he does not actually find them, he imagines or creates them. For example, he sets out the English Verb with all the trappings of the Latin Verb - Modes, several tense-forms, etc. Furthermore, he insists on the nominative case for the complements of the verb BE. He therefore claims that one should say 'I am He' (p. 71) and 'It is I'. He is following the Latin rule in this regard. Other writers, ignoring his admonitions about falling into this trap, went further, and found more cases in English than actually exist and organised their rules of concord for case with the Latin model in mind.

There was thus a divergence between what they claimed to be doing and what they were actually doing: they rejected Latin Grammar as the model for English Grammar; yet, in varying degrees, they often transferred Latin rules to English. Yet they seemed to be unaware of the discrepancy, since they never admitted, or were simply unaware of the fact, that some of their rules derived straight from Latin. Instead they would justify the rules which they had, consciously or unconsciously, filched from Latin by putting forward arguments based on logic. An example of this is Lowth's system of tenses for English. It gives the appearance of having been set up on the basis of the way we cut up the time continuum. In actual fact, here - as with many other occasions in English - there is no real correlation between form and meaning. English has only two tense-forms; and these have no direct connection with time. Thus, the so-called 'present' tense can be used to refer to future time:

He is coming tomorrow,

Similarly, the 'past' tense can be used to refer to future time:

If I knew, I would tell you.

To make matters even more complicated the 'present' tense can refer to all times at once:

I go to town on Mondays.

It would seem here that Latin rules were being applied to English, and then spurious rules of logic were being invoked to justify them.

Logic was not, however, used only to justify rules culled from Latin for English; it was also used in its own right. After all, 'Universal Reason' was completely logical; 'Universal Grammar' was the reflection of 'Universal Reason'; 'Universal Grammar' was thus the ultimate standard or correctness. The laws of logic could, therefore,

be applied to English grammar, since they were universally applicable. Thus it was argued that the double negative is anathema since two negatives make a positive; that sentences should not begin with 'and' because this word logically implies that the sentences are connected with another; that one should not refer to something as being 'more perfect', since perfection is an absolute.

Until recent times it has been this view of correctness that has prevailed among grammarians and motivated them to write grammars. Today, although these beliefs are still adhered to by many laymen and educationists, they are totally rejected by modern grammarians.

The traditionalists maintain that certain linguistic forms and rules are inherently superior to other linguistic forms and rules. If items A and B exist as alternatives in the usage of English speakers, these grammarians feel that they are entitled to claim that, say, A is 'correct' and B 'incorrect'. There is thus a definite standard whereby usage can be judged as 'right' or 'wrong'. And this standard exists independently of usage - it is a transcendental ideal that is not necessarily realised in the actual usage of current speakers of the language. If it is, this is a healthy situation; if it is not, the situation calls for curative measures - i.e. prescriptive grammars.

Modern grammarians, on the other hand, reject the idea that there is an absolute, inherent standard of correctness; to them one item is not inherently superior to another. Instead, they take as their criterion the frequency of occurrence of an item: one item may be more widely used than another and on these grounds can be said to be the more preferred or 'correct' form. Thus they would exclude 'I it bought', say, on the grounds that no one speaks like this; yet 'I done it' and 'I did it' would both be regarded as 'English', although 'I did it' is more acceptable because it is more widely used and is therefore the 'correct' way to speak. The modern standard of 'correctness' is, then, basically the set of linguistic rules and forms used by the majority of native speakers of the time.

This view, however, is not entirely new. Many Eighteenth Century grammarians - especially Priestley, but also Lowth at times - declared that usage or 'Custom' was the sole arbiter of correctness. But they were rather inconsistent in the way they applied this principle. Where usage coincided with what they believed to be 'correct', they were quite

prepared to claim that usage was their criterion. However, where usage contradicted their own notions, they would reject custom as being capricious, a 'muddling', irrational force constantly undermining the clear, sensible control which Grammar should exert over language'. In these cases they would, therefore, appeal to 'Universal Grammar' as the over-riding Judge. Aldridge (1973) explains this attempt to have the best of both world as follows:

> 'Universal Grammar, in the form in which they had inherited it, provided them with a view of language as a neat, well-defined, orderly system which corresponded, in some way, with the elegant symmetry of Universal Reason as reflected in the science of Logic. Custom was, of course, the sole arbiter and norm of speech, but it ought to conform to Reason, that is, to the dictates of Grammar.'
>
> (p. 29)

Another reason was the fact that they honestly believed that English was in a state of slow corruption. Current usage, therefore, could hardly be used as a yardstick of correctness. Custom was the sole arbiter, but often it might be the custom of an earlier period - which meant, of course, that it was not custom at all which was the criterion but some other standard by which they could decide that contemporary usage was inferior to earlier usage.

A further difference between the old and the new arises from this change in modern times to usage as a firm and definite basis of correctness. When the grammarian sets about deciding which is 'correct', he finds that it all depends on which majority he is following. Society is criss-crossed by various regional and social groups which all have their own manner of speech, or 'dialect'. And these interweaving dialects each have their own standard based on the usage of the majority of speakers in that particular dialect. Thus not only do the moderns disagree with their forebears about a standard based on reason as opposed to usage, but they also reject the idea of a monolithic standard, whatever its basis. If we say that something is 'grammatical', this simply means that it is regarded as acceptable by the majority of speakers of a certain dialect. Thus what is grammatical in one dialect may not be grammatical in another. American English, for example, allows both 'I ain't' and 'I'm not', whereas British and South African dialects allow only 'I'm not'. Even within the major regional dialects, there are variations. In South African English, for instance, there are those dialects that allow 'Come with', while there are those that frown heavily upon this.

The modern view of 'correct' and 'incorrect' language (i.e. 'grammatical' and 'ungrammatical' language) is summed up well by A.A. Hill (1951):

> 'Any form is correct only if it is current in the dialect - to be defined, of course, beforehand - that the writer is using. A form is incorrect only if it has no such currency.'
>
> (P. 390)

Modern grammarians admit, of course, that not all dialects are socially equivalent. All dialects are linguistically equal - no dialect is 'better' or 'more correct' than another: if the standard of particular dialects is determined by society and not by inherent qualities, then no dialect can be linguistically superior to another. Contrary to the Eighteenth Century stress on class superiority, the modern democratic world says it believes that all men are born equal and therefore no class is inherently superior to another; it is merely regarded as being ~~regarded~~ superior by society in general. And the same applies to their language - the dialect of a certain social class is regarded as being superior to that of another only because the class itself is of a higher social prestige.

Usually one of the dialects in a community is accepted as a 'standard' - i.e. the one regarded by the society as the 'best' kind of English, most frequently the one used by the majority of educated people. Quirk (1962/67) defines Standard English as 'normal English' - 'that kind of English which draws least attention to itself over the widest area of the widest range of usage'.

In England, it was the usage of educated speakers of English in the south that came, for various socio-economic-historical reasons, to be accepted as 'Standard English'. This was, furthermore, regarded for many years as the standard for the rest of the English-speaking world. But this is no longer the case. Each country now claims to have its own standard - i.e. the most presigious dialect within that country. Thus we can speak of standard British English, standard American English, standard South African English, and so on. There is a basic core common to all those dialects that may be called an 'umbrella standard English'; but it is rather vaguely defined. Orthographically all standard dialects are very similar, but even here the Americans have made various deviations from the norm. As regards pronunciation, the tradition R.P. (B.B.C. pronunciation), according to Quirk (1962/67), 'approaches the status of a "standard" almost only in England, although even in England it is difficult to speak of a standard pronunciation'. At the vocabulary level, there is greater consistency, although even there there are growing

divergences – e.g. the American 'wedding bands' and the South African 'braaivleis'. Syntactically they are very similar, but not without differences: the Americans accept 'I have gotten', but standard British and South African English do not.

It can be seen, then, that although the modernist and the traditionalist disagree as regards the basis of a linguistic standard in a community, they agree that there is a standard. The modernist agrees also with his predecessor that people are judged according to this standard, and that it is therefore to the advantage of the individual to conform to this standard. Roberts(1960), for example, points out that 'there is a correlation, though not a perfect one, between the achievement of material success and the avoidance of expressions like "I done it," and therefore there is a strong sense in which "I done it" is incorrect'.

Modern linguists, then, do not deny that there is a standard or that it is in the interests of the individual to conform to it; but they reject completely the idea that this standard is inherently superior to any other usage. The modernists differ, furthermore, as regards the absoluteness of the standard. Today it is believed that there are degrees of deviation from the norm rather than a clearcut right-wrong distinction. For example, 'I done it' would not be as deviant as 'They does it', while 'They it done' would be utterly deviant.

In addition, modern grammarians maintain that society itself is not completely inflexible about how much deviation it allows. There is normally a 'safe' range of deviation which is tolerated: a dialect can contain, say two structures, which are both regarded as grammatical variants, but the variation is indifferent. This compares with the toleration permitted in other forms of etiquette – e.g. dress, dining, etc. Furthermore, the latitude of toleration varies from one period to another. Pooley (1960) sums this all up in the form of two 'principles':

> 'In the realm of social behavior most of us accept the two principles governing standard which I have illustrated; namely, range of tolerance within the standard at any one period of time, and change in the description of the standard from one period to the next.'
>
> (p. 326)

His definition of standard English therefore adds another dimension to the definitions given so far in this Chapter:

> 'What we call "good English" is a gentleman's agreement covering a range of acceptable behavior, exactly parallel with the observance of standards in other types of human behavior. This range can be described, it can furnish a pattern of behavior, it can set a standard of the sort that an intelligent scholar of English can accept and use.'
>
> (p. 327)

To the modern grammarian, then, something is grammatically correct if it conforms, with a reasonable limit, to the norm set by the majority of speakers of a dialect, and 'standard' grammar is based on the norm of the prestige dialect. His norm for grammaticality is thus

a) based on usage (not an independent standard);
b) relative to a particular dialect,
c) one of which is chosen for social reasons as the 'best' dialect;
d) a flexible norm that allows a range of toleration
e) which alters from time to time.

The Twentieth Century grammarian does not, however, reject only the <u>nature</u> and <u>basis</u> of the Eighteenth Century norm, but also the <u>content</u> - i.e. the aspects it is competent to judge. The traditionalist had a very comprehensive idea of 'grammaticality'; the modernist, on the other hand, excludes much of this and restricts 'grammaticality' to only one aspect of 'correct' language usage. Today distinction is made between 'Grammar' and 'Rhetoric' - grammar and style. Aldridge (1973) describes the two as 'accuracy' and 'artistic propriety'. Mittins (1964) quotes Simeon Potter on this issue as follows:

> 'It is important to distinguish between <u>grammatical necessity</u>, which implies that the speaker has no choice as of form if he consents to follow accepted usage, from <u>stylistic possibility</u>, which allows him to choose between two or more given constructions.'
>
> (p. 99)

Grammatical choices are made according to <u>what</u> one wants to say, and something is grammatical if it conforms to the rules of the language; stylistic choices are made in terms of <u>how</u> one wants to say it, and something is stylistically effective if the speaker has chosen the appropriate structures from a number of grammatically acceptable options expressing similar meaning - or, alternatively, has deliberately deviated from the accepted grammatical rules for effect. Something can therefore be grammatically acceptable but not stylistically effective. For example, if a certain word or construction is repeated a number of times in one stretch of writing, this would be regarded as poor style but perfectly grammatical.

The norm whereby stylistic choices are judged is different from that of grammaticality. Both are socially determined, but stylistic choices are judged in terms of the context in which they occur, whereas grammatical choices are independent of contexts. Grammar presents all the options for all contexts; style involves selecting from the options presented by the language those structures which will suit the particular context in which the speaker is communicating. Gleason (1965) thus refers to style as the 'increased appreciation for differences of situation, intention and audience, and the correlation with these of variations in language'. Hugh Fraser (1969) similarly defines style as 'the ability to choose with some sensitivity the particular word, phrase or sentence forms most applicable in a given situation'.

Context determines not merely isolated stylistic choices, but rather a typical set of choices. Gleason thus also defines style as 'the patterning of choices made within the options presented by the conventions of the language'. Advertising, religious oratory, propaganda, scientific prose, legal documents, poets, novelists - each of these has its own typical 'style'.

Lowth sometimes gives the impression of an awareness of this distinction. For example, he says in his Preface:

> 'It is with reason expected of every person of liberal education that it is indispensably required of everyone who undertakes to inform, or entertain the public, that he should be able to express himself with propriety and accuracy.'

Aldridge (1973) points out, however, that this distinction is never made clearly:

> '... no clear distinction is ever made between Propriety and Accuracy, nor is it ever asserted that they regard these as identical.'

It would seem, then, that the difference between the Eighteenth Century and the Twentieth is that then there was no real awareness of this distinction, whereas now the two are definitely differentiated.

From one point of view, the Eighteenth Century grammarian had a wider definition of 'grammar', since he included in his definition of grammar much which would today be labelled as 'style'. Paradoxically, on the other hand, his definition of 'correct grammar' was narrower than that of his modern counterpart, since he would reject much which the Twentieth Century grammarian would label as poor in style but nevertheless grammatically correct. What made the Eighteenth Century view even more

restrictive, however, was the fact that their lack of distinction between grammar and style did not mean that they included *all* the various styles of English in their grammar of English; they chose a narrow range of styles which had to be adapted to suit all contexts, and rejected any usage which did not conform to these particular styles as 'ungrammatical' and therefore not to be included in a grammatical description of the language. Not only, therefore, did they base their idea of 'correct' grammar on one particular dialect of English, but they also restricted themselves to a narrow range of styles within that dialect.

The styles in question were those based on written, formal English, often with a literary bias. The Eighteenth Century misconception that grammar is exclusively concerned with *written* language was inherited from the early days of language study and was perhaps reinforced by the etymology of the word 'grammar' – the Greek term 'grammatikē technē', the 'art of writing'. Spoken language was regarded as an inferior version of the written language, which is based on 'true grammar'. Thus, for example, the Eighteenth Century grammarians insisted that 'whom' must *always* be used when the pronoun 'who' is in the accusative case. Modern grammarians, on the other hand, regard the *spoken* language as primary, while the written form is seen as a means of representing speech in another medium. Nevertheless, neither is 'purer' than the other; each has its own peculiarities because of the difference in context. Thus the modern view would be to accept both 'who' and 'whom' as grammatical variants for the accusative case in Standard English, since both occur in the usage of speakers of Standard English; however, it would be maintained that 'whom' is used in written English, while 'who' is accepted in spoken English. Linked with this distinction is the formal-informal variation of language usage in terms of the context. This is determined by the purpose of the communication and the people present, but written language generally, in all contexts, tends to be more formal than spoken language. On the basis of this distinction, modern grammarians would accept many colloquialisms which used to be rejected as 'incorrect' because they deviated from the formal style they had chosen for their standard.

It can be seen from all this that the modern view of correctness is not of the nature to inspire modern grammarians to write books with a burning zeal to expound the truth with the hope of improving and maintaining the language through improving the speakers' use of the language. To them, there is no *one* standard to uphold; their standards are not inherently ordained but socially established; these are not characterised by a right-wrong dichotomy but by a flexibility that allows for 'degrees'

of correctness; by distinguishing between grammar and style and allowing for a variety of styles within the grammatical confines of the language, their view of what is 'grammatical' is a far wider and more tolerant view than that of the Eighteenth Century. Modern grammarians, then, have no fear of a standard of purity which is declining. Deviation from the norm or change does not mean 'corruption', but simply ignorance or change of fashion. The motivation to preserve and improve the language, therefore, not longer has such a strong pull.

Some modern grammarians still believe that grammatical knowledge can be used for the purpose of improving an individual's use of the language and for upholding the standard dialect, but this is not their concern as such (at any rate, when dealing with L1). This they leave to applied grammar and stylistics. Aldridge (1973) makes the point as follows:

> 'To the overwhelming majority of modern linguists, Grammar is NOT a didactic art ... grammmar must be concerned with the explication of facts about language, but it does not attempt to teach speakers how to use these facts in order to speak "rightly".'
>
> (p. 17)

Later he says:

> 'A fundamental difference between the eighteenth century notion of Grammar and that of our times seems to be that, while now the analysis of Structure is its chief objective, the exploitation of this knowledge being left to Stylistics, it was then merely the means to an end which itself was regarded as making up the better part of the whole.'
>
> (p. 20)

The emphasis today is on the knowledge itself rather than the application of this knowledge. Modern grammarians - now more often called linguists - are concerned with the study of language for its own sake. The liberal aim has ousted the pragmatic aim.

One possible reason for this was the application of linguistic investigation to non-Indo-European languages, which shattered the idea that there was some universal ideal form which was correct for all languages. These languages were too different from those encountered before, and could not possibly be forced into a Latinate mould - at any rate, as regards surface structures, which is all they were concerned with at the time. The change can further be ascribed to what Francis (1954) refers to as the 'growth and refinement of scientific method' (p. 429), which was applied to anthropology and thus to language as an aspect of human beings. The linguist adopted the idea that phenomena must be described as they

actually are and not as they ought to be in order to improve something or other. Only then, according to Martinet (1960), could their subject also be ranked as a 'science':

> 'A subject is said to be scientific when it is founded on the observation of facts and refrains from picking and choosing among the facts in the light of certain aesthetic and moral principles. Thus "scientific" is opposed to "prescriptive".'
>
> (p. 15)

Lyons (1971) calls this the 'descriptive' as opposed to the 'prescriptive' approach:

> 'Just as one can draw a distinction between descriptive and prescriptive ethics, let us say, so one can distinguish between prescriptive and descriptive grammar.'
>
> (p. 53)

2.2 The Grammars: Prescriptive to Descriptive

The different aims of the prescriptivists and descriptivists result in two completely opposing views as to the subject-matter of 'grammar'. The prescriptivists, with their pragmatic motives, see it as the ideal set of rules of a language which may or may not but ought to occur in a language. On the other hand, the descriptivists' liberal aim leads them to regard 'grammar' as the facts of the language as they actually exist. These different views as to the subject-matter of grammar resulting from differences in aims lead, in turn, to very different types of grammatical descriptions.

It has already been stated that the traditional grammarian, in his attempt to find the absolute standard of correctness, would be prepared to include in his grammar rules derived from Latin or based on logic. Modern grammarians, on the other hand, do not believe that the rules the grammarian describes must contradict the facts as they actually exist in the usage of speakers of the language.

A further difference arises from the fact that the traditionalist did not attempt or even pretend to try to write a 'complete' or explicit account of these ideal rules. Priestley describes such texts as follows:

> '... the grammars contain all the rules and precepts necessary to make a person understand the structure of the language in order to enable him either to use them with accuracy himself, or to understand another person who uses them.'

Lowth, in his Preface, also states adamantly that he intends to describe English in <u>broad</u> terms only:

> 'All disquisitions, which appeared to have more of subtlety than of usefulness in them, have been avoided. In a word, it was calculated for the use of the learner, even of the lowest class.'

A grammar text was not <u>meant</u> to be an academic discourse, but rather, like a handbook on etiquette or person hygiene, it was intended to give the reader some useful tips and therefore only needed to be brief and simple. It would describe only the rules 'necessary' for guidance and improvement of speech - i.e. those most frequently transgressed, or with which people tend to find difficulty. In order to describe these, other details might have to be given, but these would be merely incidental background to the rules they really wish to describe. They would thus stress exceptions and irregularities, leaving many of the ordinary rules to the reader's intelligence to add in.

An example of this is the order of items in a noun phrase. Lowth tells us that an article is 'a word prefixed to Substantives, to point them out, and to show how far their signification extends'; he defines an adjective as 'a word <u>added to</u> a Substantive to express its quality'. Both of these are added to nouns, and he says elsewhere that they precede nouns. What he leaves unsaid, however, is the order in which these two occur before nouns. He does not say that a noun phrase can consist of an article plus an adjective plus a noun - in that order. The reader's common sense must tell him this, or he can infer all this from the examples given. Furthermore, adverbs are defined as words 'added to verbs, and also to adjectives and other adverbs, to express some circumstances belonging to them'. So adverbs can be added to adjectives in noun phrases. Where do they go in the noun phrase ? Once again, the picture is not clear. The point is that Lowth is not really so concerned with describing noun phrases in detail; he is more concerned with the typical errors people make elsewhere - e.g. ending a sentence with a preposition; splitting the infinitive; the case of subjective complements; concord; and so on.

In practice, the traditional grammarian often did supply many more details than were actually 'necessary' for the learner. For example, Lowth, carried away by the logic of the English language, provided the reader with an abundant supply of information on the verb. This was, however, more likely to occur in descriptions of the word than of the sentence. It was especially in the case of <u>syntax</u> that their

descriptions were so sparse. The reason for this was that they felt that English syntax was very simple. Lowth, for example, says in his Preface:

> 'The construction of this language is so easy and obvious, that our Grammarians have thought it hardly worth while to give us any thing like a regular and systematic syntax.'

The reason for this is that English as an analytic language makes use of word order rather than inflexions, and in the Eighteenth Century, because of the status of Latin and Greek Grammar, 'syntax' was largely equated with 'inflexions'. Lowth's conclusion was that 'nothing is more unnecessary and at the same time more commonly difficult than to give a formal demonstration of a proposition almost self-evident'. He therefore devotes only a small section of his Short Introduction to syntax, and praises Johnson, whose description of English syntax consisted of a mere ten lines. The typical traditional text was therefore word-based rather than sentence-based.

Furthermore, what was described was often done in a form of rough-and-ready explanations to aid the reader. The reader was meant to supplement the description with his common sense. The Eighteenth Century grammarian made no pretence of trying to present a fool-proof or academic description of these aspects which he did deem it 'necessary' to include in his text. He would thus define a noun as the name of a 'person, place or thing' and not be preturbed if his definition was circular - i.e. he had not yet defined what a 'thing' was. His definition was not intended to be able to stand up to intellectual scrutiny.

By contrast with this, modern linguists maintain that 'the analysis and description of a given language must conform to the requirements laid down for any satisfactory scientific theory' (Francis: 1966). And one of these requirements is completeness. While confessing that 'all grammars leak', the linguist nevertheless attempts to give as complete s description of the language as he can. He would agree with the traditionalist that syntax is 'difficult' to describe because it is so obvious; but he would not accept that it is 'unnecessary' or 'hardly worth while' to describe it on the grounds that it is obvious. In fact, syntax has become the heart of the modern grammar; word-based grammars are no longer the order of the day.

Not only does the linguist maintain that he must try to describe the language in its entirety; in order to be scientific, he must also be explicit. He will thus avoid vague notional definitions as far as

possible. Instead of saying that a noun is 'the name of a person, place or thing', he might say that a noun is a word which functions like 'dog', or with articles, etc. Many of these are not fool-proof either, but they are academically more defensible.

The aim to be more complete - and especially to cover syntax more fully - together with the aim to be more explicit led to certain changes in the grammatical descriptions of English. Firstly, the emphasis on syntax and the attempt to be more explicit in the description of syntax led to a far greater and more systematic recognition of the basic parts of the sentence, namely the phrase, as well as the idea of the levels of of structure in sentences. While it is true that Lowth was aware of the notion of 'phrase' and that the sentence is hierarchical in structure, with a complex set of inter-relations between the various structures and sub-structures, he did not develop this idea fully or explicitly, and usually worked in terms of the sentence consisting merely of an ordered strong of words. Secondly, the attempt to be more explicit led to an awareness of the distinction between structure and function, two concepts which Traditional Grammar tends to confuse when speaking, for example, of the subject as a structure consisting of a noun.

2.3 The Liberal Aim: Mechanist to Mentalist

Martinet (1960) says that 'until a very recent date those engaged in the study of language in general or of particular languages have done so with prescriptive intentions, whether tacit or explicit' (p. 15). Brengelman (1970) makes the same point ten years later:

> 'The pursuit of grammar has ... been almost exclusively utilitarian until recent times.'
>
> (p. 12)

Today, then, it is accepted that the grammarian's aim is the liberal or descriptive one; that 'grammar' means the facts of the language as they actually exist; and that the linguist's description of the grammar of a language must be complete and explicit.

But this is where the agreement ends. There are basically two different approaches today. This can be explained by reference to the language situation:

speaker/ writer ---------- sentences ----------> listener/ reader

One approach, which is often called the 'descriptive' approach (though not in the sense used above), regards the subject-matter of grammar as the internal structure of the sentences which speakers of a language use to communicate with each other.

Another approach is what might be called the 'psychological' approach. In this case, the subject-matter of grammar is the knowledge a speaker has of his language enabling him to produce and understand sentences. In the descriptive approach, the emphasis is on the sentences themselves; in the second it is on the internal, mental 'rules' a speaker intuitively knows, making it possible to construct and interpret sentences. Lieberman (1969) thus defines grammar as 'the mental store of rules and the mental lexicon that govern linguistic ability'. She elaborates as follows:

> 'Just as we consult a book of rules, that is, a grammar, when we want to know how to write sentences in a foreign language, and a dictionary of that language to understand the meanings of the words and the restrictions on their usage, so we must, when speaking a sentence or writing a sentence, refer to an internal store in which the rules of our own language are contained, and an internal dictionary, in which the words and the idiomatic phrases of the language are stored.'
>
> (pp. 527-528)

Goyvaerts (1973) points out that this has been the approach which has come to dominate the linguistic scene in the last two decades:

> '... since 1957 there as been a definite change of interest among many linguists; they are not so much concerned any more with the actual linguistic material but rather with the machine or device that produces the material.'
>
> (p. 33)

His choice of the year 1957 as the turning-point is undoubtedly due to the fact that it was in that year that Noam Chomsky published his <u>Synctatic Structures</u>. Since then it has been Chomsky who has tended to dominate this approach to the study of grammar. Lyons (1970), in his book <u>Chomsky</u>, says:

> '... for Chomsky the "intuitions" of the speaker (that is to say, his mental representation of the language), rather than the sentences themselves, are the true object of description.'
>
> (p. 87)

These two different meanings of the word 'grammar' are actually the result of a difference in approach, outlook and procedure. Those linguists that interpret the word in the first, descriptive, sense argue that the linguist must begin with observable physical data and that at no stage

must he refer to anything else. Those linguists, whom we may call the mechanists, therefore see grammar purely as the internal structure of the language. On the other hand, those that take the word 'rules' in the psychological sense maintain that it is quite in order to refer to non-observable phenomena, including the mind. These linguists, whom we may call the mentalists, regard grammar as the virtual mental rules that are merely manifested in actual utterances. Katz (1964) explains their approach as follows:

> 'To explain how speakers are able to communicate in their language, the mentalist hypothesizes that, underlying the speaker's ability to communicate, there is a highly complex mechanism which is essentially the same as that underlying the linguistic ability of other speakers. He thus views the process of linguistic communication as one in which such mechanisms operate to encode and decode verbal messages. The aim of theory construction in linguistics is taken to be the formulation of a theory that reveals the structure of this mechanism and explains the facts of linguistic communication by showing them to be behavioral consequences of the operation of a mechanism with just the structure that the formulated theory attributes to it.'
>
> (p. 128)

We might sum up this as follows: the mechanist is concerned with what, while the mentalist is concerned with how. Their differences in approach are based on their very different views of both science and psychology.

2.3.1 The mechanists and mentalists differ radically in their view of science. Both accept that linguistics is the science of language, and that linguistics is basically concerned with grammar. Therefore both regard grammar as a scientific subject. However, each defines 'science' differently. Lyons (1970) defines science as follows:

> '... we may say that a scientific description is one that is carried out systematically on the basis of objectively verifiable observations and within the framework of some general theory appropriate to the data.'
>
> (p. 16)

Goyvaerts also points out that there are two aspects to scientific methodology: firstly, the 'general principle of rationality' - i.e. the use of logic; and secondly, the 'emprical method' - i.e. the procedure of systematic observation. Thus science deals both with abstract relations and something that can be empirically verified.

However, in practice, scientists tend to stress either the one aspect or the other. Although this may appear to be nothing more than a

difference in emphasis of the same material, it leads in fact to a very different approach with regard to the proper subject matter of a science. Those that stress the second, empirical, aspect follow the inductive method of study. These scientists arrive at a theory only in terms of what has been observed. That is, they accept a theory only if it can be proven by reference to observable facts. Therefore they place greater stress on the facts than on the theory. Those that emphasise the second aspect apply the deductive method. That is, they begin with 'an untraceable element (as opposed to an inductive element) viz. "personal experience": from here [they] move through HYPOTHESES to a THEORY and ultimately to an ordering of the data' (Goyvaerts: p. 13). These scientists, the rationalists, would thus start with some hypothesis resulting from personal experience. This hypothesis would be tested by reference to the data. If the data contradicts the hypothesis, then the latter will be modified or discarded completely; if the facts support or at any rate do not contradict the hypothesis, then the latter will be maintained, even though it cannot necessarily be proven from the facts. The hypothesis is therefore accepted as a theory as long as no contradictory data comes to light. The 'proof' would thus often be a negative one. Therefore, whereas the empiricists accept only information proven by facts and reject anything which cannot be thus proven, the rationalists, while rejecting anything which the facts disprove, are prepared to accept theories which are not proven but which cannot be disproved either.

The mechanists, who are the descendants of the American linguist, Bloomfield, argue that linguistics is an empirical science. Therefore they demand that linguistics must meet the demands of empirical methodology. Bloomfield, in an article he published in 1938, had this to say:

> '... we can distinguish a science from other phases of human activity by agreeing that science shall only deal with events that are accessible in their time and place to any and all observers ...'

He also said that 'the only useful generalisations are inductive generalisations'. Lyons (1970) makes the point that '"Bloomfieldian" linguistics was remarkably, and at times ostentatiously, uninterested in general theoretical questions'. Goyvaerts also suggests that they were extreme in their empirical demands: he says that they 'seemed to overemphasise the use of objective methods in their research and tried to avoid ad absurdum any reference to mental traits or to what they claimed to be "obscure" notions' (1973: p. 28).

On these grounds, the mechanists maintained that purely linguistic theories can succeed in predicting and explaining the facts of linguistic performance. Therefore, they restricted themselves to the corpus 'of elicitable utterances, behavioral responses to such utterances, and observable features of the contexts in which utterances occur' (Katz: 1964, p. 129) and refused to consider the internal, psychological properties of speakers as part of the subject-matter of linguistics. Thus we see how the relative emphasis of a scientist on the two aspects of science affects that scientist's view of the area of his subject.

Bloomfield, in his Language (1933), points out that his position is different from that of the mentalist:

> 'The mentalist would supplement the facts of language by a version in terms of mind ... the mechanist demands that the facts be presented without any assumption of such auxiliary terms. I have tried to meet these demands.'

In opposition to this, the mentalists support the deductive approach to science; they thus stress the importance of the rational aspect. Chomsky (1968) argues against the mere recording and organising of the data. He maintains that

> 'such a restriction was debilitating and unnecessary and that, whatever justification it may have, it has nothing to do with the method of science - which is typically concerned with data not for itself but as evidence for deeper, hidden organizing principles, principles that cannot be detected "in the phenomena" nor derived from them by taxonomic data-processing operations, any more than the principles of celestial mechanics could have been developed in conformity with such strictures.'
>
> (p. 14)

For the mentalist, these 'deeper, hidden principles' are theories about the mind. They therefore argue that purely linguistic facts are incapable of explaining and predicting the facts of linguistic performance; it is also necessary to make use of facts about the mental operations that underlie speech.

Mentalists therefore reject the claims of the mechanists on the grounds that their view of science is unnecessarily restrictive; that they have narrowed down the subject-matter of linguistics, with the result that there are many vital aspects of the subject that are ignored. Katz maintains that this is the main argument of the mentalists against the mechanists on scientific grounds. He says that the 'best theory is one which systematises the widest range of facts'. For this reason alone, the mentalist theory is better, since it can 'handle any fact that the [mechanistic] can handle, whereas the latter is unable to handle

many kinds of facts that the former handles easily and naturally' (1964, p. 127). He sums up the kinds of facts as follows:

> 'Taxonomic linguistics can only describe the utterances of a language; mentalist linguistics can not only do this but can also explain how speakers communicate by using the utterances, and how the ability to communicate is acquired. Instead of the taxonomic linguist having a just complaint against the mentalist for appealing to occult entities, the mentalist has a just complaint against the taxonomic linguist for excluding from linguistics, a priori and arbitrarily, just what is most important for this science to do.'
>
> (p. 137)

2.3.2 Related to their different views of science, are the different approaches to psychology on the part of the mentalists and mechanists. The mechanists base themselves on an empirical psychology known as Behaviourism. The mentalists, on the other hand, accept a rationalist psychology, to which the name cognitive psychology may be given. Once, again, in the field of psychology as well, the relative emphasis on the empirical and rationalist aspects of 'science' leads to a totally different view as to the proper subject-matter of psychology (and therefore of linguistics as well). The crux of the matter is the old nature-nurture controversy, the relative importance of the organism on the one hand and the environment on the other in learning and behaviour; this leads to the question as to whether it is the behaviour and environment that must be studied or the organism itself.

This is a vital issue, as it determines one's approach to the whole question as to how language is acquired and learnt. The different conclusions to the nature-nurture controversy have led, during this century, to very different views as to what exactly the 'grammar' of a language is. As will be seen in the next chapter, one's view as to what 'grammar' is vitally affects the way in which one analyses the linguistic abilities, needs and problems of the schoolchild who is still acquiring his language. Furthermore, one's view in this regard determines what kind of liberal aim one investigates for schools - i.e. a knowledge of the structure of the language for its own sake or an explicit knowledge of a speaker's rules for its own sake. In fact, it could affect whether there is a valid liberal aim for grammar in the schools at all.

1. The Mechanists: In order to maintain the objectivity of his science of language, Bloomfield adopted the current school of psychology, viz.

Behaviourism. There have since been numerous variations on the 'Behaviourist' theories, but basically all of them accept the same approach to learning and behaviour. Behaviourism adopted empirical methods in order to establish 'an objective psychology which dealt only with observables and avoided the subjectivity and intuition which characterised much of the then current psychological approaches' (Goodstein: 1965, p. 140). It is thus strictly atheoretical and purely descriptive.

The extreme behaviourists had no use for consciousness or conscious process. In fact, they had, according to Lyons (1970), 'no need to postulate the existence of the mind or of anything else that was not observable, in order to explain those activities of human beings that were traditionally described as "mental" or "rational"' (pp. 30 - 31). They argued that all behaviour, from the amoeba to the human being, could be explained by observing the organism's responses to stimuli presented by the features of the environment. They thus adopted the Lockean point of view that 'what is external and visible is more basic than what is not' (Goyvaerts: 1973, p. 14). This means that they accepted the principle of 'physicalism', which Lyons (1970) defines as follows:

> '... the philosophical system according to which all statements about a person's thoughts, emotions and sensations can be re-formulated as statements about his bodily condition and observable behaviour, and thus be brought within the scope of "physical" laws.'
>
> (p. 97)

All learning is regarded as being achieved by Thorndike's principle of 'reinforcement' and the theory of 'conditioning'. Their theory of learning, therefore, adopts the empiricist argument of knowledge - that all learning is derived from experience; in fact, the word 'empiricist' comes from the Greek word which means 'experience'. They therefore stress the importance of the environment, accepting the 'nurture' rather than the 'nature' theory of learning.

As regards behaviour itself, it is maintained that this is 'a function of its antecedents and its consequences, that behaviour is lawful. The study of the relationships between antecedents and behavior is seen as the major task of psychology ... and it is assumed that such relationships, that is, the laws of behavior, are potentially discoverable by such an approach' (Goodstein: 1965, p. 142). The behaviourist therefore accepts the doctrine of 'determinism', which Lyons (1970) defines as follows:

> '... the doctrine that all physical events and phenomena, including those actions and decisions of human beings that we might describe as resulting from "choice" and "free will", are determined by earlier events and phenomena, and are subject to the laws of cause-and-effect, so that our impression of freedom of choice is totally illusory.'
>
> (p. 97)

Goyvaerts (1973) sums up the attiude of Skinner, the foremost advocate of behaviourism, as follows:

> 'He is interested in lawfulness, based on observed instances. He is interested in the functional relationship between the S (input) and the R (output). What lies between the S and the R is the so-called "black box", which should, according to Skinner, be referred to neurophysiology; it is not the field of the psychologist.'
>
> (p. 22)

In both learning and behaving, therefore, the behaviourist ignores the contribution of the organism itself on the basis that the organism is passive during acquisition of knowledge and putting this knowledge into practice.

This 'knowledge', furthermore, consists of '"habits" built up by a process of "conditioning", lengthier and more complex no doubt in its details, but not qualitatively different from the process by which rats in a psychological laboratory "learn" to obtain food by pressing a bar in the cage in which they are housed' (Lyons: 1970, p. 13). Thus, the behaviourists substantiate their arguments by conducting experiments in a highly controlled laboratory situation on animals and then applying the results to the behaviour of human beings.

Bloomfield (and his followers) as well as subsequent language theorists such as Skinner accepted the behaviourist framework for linguistic description. The nature, acquisition and use of language were seen in the light of behaviourist theories of learning and behaviour.

It is maintained that language is learnt purely from the environment. The child gradually builds up a habit-structure, a network of associations by generalizing from the corpus of utterances that occur in his environment. Eventually he has a set of lexical items learnt by continually relating a stimulus to a response, as well as a set of grammatical 'frames' also acquired in the same way. The contribution of the speaker during the process of language learning is quite trivial and elementary.

'Language', then, consists of a store of elements - the words, phrases and sentence-types by which any man expresses himself. 'Knowledge' of a language is simply being able to respond in a certain situation with appropriate utterances. Chomsky (1968) sums up their view of linguistic knowledge as follows:

> '... "knowing how", a skill expressible as a system of dispositions to respond.'
>
> (p. 22)

Language behaviour is simply a matter of producing appropriate responses to stimuli - an interpretative response during perception and a productive response during language use.

To the mechanist, then, the facts of language study that they observe are as follows:

INPUT ⟶ knowledge ⟶ OUTPUT

The 'input' is the child's experience of language - a series of stimulus-response associations that repeatedly impinge upon his senses. This results in his knowledge of language as a predisposition to respond in a certain situation with the appropriate utterances. Language use (output) simply involves reproducing thse learnt associations either during perception or during language production. Thus input = knowledge; knowledge = output; therefore input = output.

11. The Mentalists: The mentalists, chiefly led by Chomsky, reject behaviourism out of hand both as a valid view of behaviour and as a framework of linguistic description. They base themselves instead on what might be called 'cognitive' psychology. 'Cognition' refers to the various aspects of the 'conscious' life. Therefore the cognitive approach to psychology can be said to accept the idea that the human being has a special set of abilities that play an active role during learning and behaving. Instead of the human being being passive during these processes, he makes use of a set of faculties to which we normally give the name 'mind'. This mind processes input information during learning. Chomsky argues this view in his Language and Mind (1968), the title of which sums up his attitude towards language and psychology:

> '... normal human intelligence is capable of acquiring knowledge through its own internal resources, perhaps making use of the data of sense, but going on to construct a cognitive system in terms of concepts and principles that are developed on indepedent grounds.'
>
> (p. 8)

Cognitive psychology thus accepts the Seventeenth Century rationalist psychology's doctrine of innate abilities - our perception and understanding of the external world (and therefore learning) depends upon a number of 'ideas' or organising principles of interpretation. The knowledge thus acquired by means of the interplay of innate abilities and the environment then influences the way a human being behaves - he does not merely react to stimuli with learnt responses: he is capable of acting in new and different ways according to his whim and free will. Therefore, the cognitive psychologists, rather than being concerned primarily with the input and output of the organism - the observable events of the environment and their relationship to behaviour - are more concerned with the nature of this behaviour and the structure of the organism that lies between. Chomsky (1959) argues thus:

> 'If the contribution of the organism is complex, the only hope of predicting behavior even in a gross way will be through a very indirect program of research that begins by studying behavior itself and the particular capacities of the organism involved.'
>
> (p. 27)

He therefore looks to a psychology

> 'that begins with the problem of characterizing various systems of human knowledge and belief, the concepts of which they are organised and the principles that underlie them, and that only then turns to the study of how these systems might have developed through some combination of innate structure and organism-environment interaction.'
>
> (1968, p. 6)

As far as language study in particular is concerned, Chomsky has opposed the mechanistic approach that concentrates on language behaviour and that regards 'knowledge' merely as 'knowing how' to respond appropriately to stimuli. Chomsky maintains that the mind plays an active part both during language acquisition and language use. Therefore the real emphasis in language study should be on the structure of the mechanism that underlies language ability. His main objections to behaviourism as a framework of linguistic description are based on the lack of correlation between the various aspects involved in language use and acquisition. Whereas the behaviourists stress that input (language experience) equals 'knowledge' of language and that output (language use) is also equivalent to this knowledge (and therefore to input as well), Chomsky maintains that there is a vast discrepancy between both input and knowledge on the one hand, and between output and knowledge (and therefore also between input and output) on the other.

1. Firstly, as regards the disparity between knowledge and behaviour, there are the following arguments that can be advanced in favour of a cognitive approach to language:

(a) Chomsky (1967) maintains that the central fact to which linguists must address themselves is the following:

> '... a mature speaker can produce a new sentence of his language on the appropriate occasion, and other speakers can understand it immediately, though it is equally new to them.'
>
> (p. 3)

The main point here is the novelty of the sentences which speakers of a language are able to perceive and produce. Chomsky maintains that 'an essential property of language is that it provides the means for expressing indefinitely many thoughts and for reacting appropriately in an indefinite range of new situations' (1965, p. 6). In other words, most of what we see or hear during the normal use of language is entirely new, and not 'a repetition of anything that we have heard before and not even similar in pattern - in any useful sense of the terms "similar" and "pattern" - to situations or discourse that we have heard in the past' (Chomsky: 1968, p. 10). Chomsky argues with Descartes and Humboldt that this innovative property or 'creative aspect' of language is the main feature of human behaviour that proves the 'creative aspect' of man, an ability which above all else sets man apart from the beasts.

The productivity applies partly to words, but above all to sentences. Slobin (1971) maintains that 'we are almost never called upon to create new words, and most of the sentences we hear do not contain new words to be understood' (p. 3). However, Miller (1964) points out that creativity on the level of individual words is not entirely lacking, and is also proof of cognitive powers. He concedes, though, that at the word level one has to accept that conditioning does play a part.

When, however, it comes to sentences, the situation is different. It is our ability to produce and understand original combinations of elements (i.e. our productive ability) that makes language so infinitely useful and which discounts the possibility of conditioning (i.e. a reproductive ability) as an explanation for language use. Any theory of language must take this property of language into consideration. Miller (1964) says:

> '... the fundamental puzzle is not our ability to associate vocal noises with perceptual objects, but rather our combinatorial productivity - our ability to understand an unlimited diversity of utterances never heard before and to produce an equal variety

of utterances intelligible to the members of our speech community.'

(p. 333)

It is true that there are certain stock utterances such as 'How are you ?' which are not new; however, these are 'quite untypical of normal linguistic performance' (Fowler: 1971, p. 4). By far the majority of the sentences we experience are new to us. This means that the number of possible sentences we use in everyday discourse is astronomical. In fact, says Chomsky (1967), 'the class of sentences with which we can operate fluently and without difficulty or hesitation is so vast that for all practical purposes (and, obviously, for all theoretical purposes), we may regard it as infinite' (p. 3). Of course, this cannot be proven by trying to count all the sentences of the language; however, there is no longest sentence in a natural language, 'and therefore by implication /we can assume/ that there are an infinite number of sentences' (Fowler: 1971, p. 4). This is the result of such linguistic processes as compounding and recursive (i.e. infinely repetitive) embedding.

On the other hand, it can be assumed that our knowledge of sentence structure is finite; thus there is a discrepancy between our knowledge and our language behaviour. This contrasts with the behaviouristic approach, which sees knowledge as equivalent to output, and sentence production as the mere filling of the slots in set frames. We must therefore conclude with Miller that what we have learned 'are not particular strings of words, but rules for generating admissible strings of words'. The mind, therefore, must be active during sentence production and sentence perception, and not passive, as the behaviourists claim it is.

(b) A further point is the fact that the sentences we actually produce are often incomplete, deviant, etc. This is especially so when we are speaking as opposed to writing. There is thus a discrepancy here between a speaker's knowledge and his actual performance. His knowledge consists of rules that would enable him to produce strings of words that are well-formed. However, during the actual production of a sentence, many factors (e.g. memory limitations, diversion, etc.) often cause the utterance to be deviant. If this is so, then his production of sentences cannot merely be, as the behaviourists maintain, the reproduction of memorised sentences or sentence structures. There will be variations from one person to another, and for one person from one time to another in the types of deviations that can occur. It has already been stated that the number of sentences a speakers can produce is infinite.

Even if this were not so, the number of variations on each potential sentence is infinite. The mind cannot possibly store up hundreds of variations of each sentence - e.g. with different pauses, 'ums', repetitions, incompletions, etc. - each time. It must once again be assumed that there is a dynamic force behind sentence production, a force that each time produces an abstract structure that provides the speaker with a virtual pattern which is then made concrete in various forms.

Furthermore, anyone perceiving a stretch of speech is able to understand it despite its deviations. Now, if speech perception were merely a matter of matching up the heard sentence (the stimulus) with a recorded similar structure (the response), the speaker of English would not be able to understand such utterances. We have to accept that the mind must abstract from the data what is essential before it assigns an abstract structure to it.

(c) Many of the linguistic tasks that we are able to perform both during perception and production cannot be achieved by the matching of slot-and-filler frames, since we need to use information not observable in the data. Once again, output is not equal to knowledge; the mind must be active in each case.

In each of the following cases, a speaker would not be able to produce or understand the sentences involved if he were merely using stored frames. One reason is, as was stated above, the creativity of language - the speaker cannot merely, in the case of perception, be identifying meaning on the basis of recalled structures, since in most examples the structures will be new to him. Another reason is that the speaker requires more information than is supplied by the 'frame' of the sentences. It is this aspect which will now be discussed.

Every native speaker, when confronted by any particular utterance in his language, is able to distinguish well-formed sentences from ungrammatical strings without much deep thought. In fact, he is able to discern degrees of acceptability. For example, if we were to present a speaker of English with the following -

(1) Your fat dog sat on my records yesterday
(2) Blue occurrences are mighty
(3) Boy the girl the at the threw onion -

he would be able to say without hesitation that (1) is a sentence and (3) is not - it can be labelled as a 'non-sentence'. Furthermore, he would probably regard (2) as something between a sentence and a non-sentence, or what Branford, following Katz, labels a 'semi-sentence' (1974, p. 3).

All this suggests that the speaker must be using his knowledge of his language to perform these skills. Branford (1974) puts it thus:

> 'The immediate point is that most of us do have some sort of intuitive criteria for judging sentences. ... Part of our knowledge of our language, in other words, is the ability to judge between "well-formed" and "deviant" or "ungrammatical" sentences.'
>
> (pp. 2 - 3)

Miller (1964) regards this as one example of what Wittgenstein called 'rule-governed behaviour':

> 'Wittgenstein remarked that the most characteristic thing we can say about "rule-governed behaviour" is that the person who knows the rules knows whether he is proceeding correctly or incorrectly. Although he may not be able to formulate the rules explicitly, he knows what it is to make a mistake.'
>
> (p. 334)

In the same article, Miller concludes that this ability cannot be the result of conditioning:

> 'If this remark is accepted, we must ask ourselves whether an animal that has been conditioned is privy to such knowledge about the correctness of what he is doing. Perhaps such a degree of insight could be achieved by the great apes, but surely not by all the various species that can acquire conditioned reflexes. On this basis alone it would seem necessary to preserve a distinction between conditioning and learning rules.'

It is thus not viable to claim that the speaker distinguishes between acceptable and non-acceptable sentences on the basis of matching them with stored frames. This latter approach would also not explain why it is possible for a speaker to interpret semi-sentences. Many such strings are capable of interpretation on the part of the speaker. However, these are strings in which there is a breach of established patterns; therefore, the speaker obviously cannot be recalling an established pattern to identify it. In fact, Slobin (1971) points out that 'much of the understanding of certain kinds of poetry is based on this ability to find interpretations for grammatically unusual constructions - an activity which can be especially pleasurable' (pp. 4-5).

The first linguistic task, then, for which behaviourism cannot account is the ability to distinguish between grammatical and ungrammatical strings of words. A further task which a speaker must be able to perform is to interpret all the acceptable sentences of the language. Here once again behaviourism is incapable of accounting for all the facts: there are many types of sentences which any mature speaker of English would be able to understand, but which he could not do merely on the basis of frame-recognition:

(i) It sometimes happens that we come across two sentences that have similar frames on the surface yet at a deeper level have two very different meanings. For example:

(4) Sleeping babies can be nice.
(5) Eating oysters can be nice.

It is clear that sentence (4) can be re-phrased as 'babies which are sleeping can be nice', whereas sentence (5) cannot be rendered as 'Oysters which are eating can be nice'. Thus, although these two have the same surface frames, our linguistic intuition makes it possible for us to interpret each sentence quite differently by analysing each sentence differently.

(ii) There are many cases where one frame may have more than one meaning - i.e. the sentence is ambiguous. The following newspaper headline is an example of this:

(6) NAVY TESTS ALARM

There is only one frame here on the surface, but any mature native speaker would be able to detect that there are actually two structures underlying this:

The navy is testing the alarm.
The navy tests are alarming the people.

Rote recall cannot be the method of disambiguating this, since the sentence is likely to be new to most people; once again, it must be one's internal grammar that operates on the surface frame and then provides the speaker with two astract underlying structures.

(iii) The opposite to (ii) can also occur: there can be two sentences with different frames and yet with the same meaning - i.e. they are synonymous. Once again, a fluent speaker would be able to see the relation between the two sentences because his intuition identifies a similar structure underlying both sentences; and therefore he is able to arrive at the same meaning for both. Jacobs and Rosenbaum (1967)

show that any speaker would be able to detect the synonymy between the following two sentences:

> (7) The old hen loves the haughty gander.
> (8) The haughty hen is loved by the old hen.

On the other hand, it is clear that the English speaker would immediately realise that the following do not have the same meaning:

> (9) The old hen loves the haughty gander.
> (10) The haughty gander loves the old hen.

As Jacobs and Rosenbaum put it: 'The old hen may love the haughty gander, but this does not mean that the haughty gander loves the old hen. In fact, the haughty gander may not even know that the old hen exists' (p. 3).

The behaviourist theory, therefore, cannot account for the discrepancy between knowledge and behaviour, and thus for the speaker's ability to produce and understand new utterances, to distinguish between grammatical and ungrammatical strings and to intepret all the grammatical strings.

2½. There is also the disparity between the speaker's linguistic knowledge on the one hand and his linguistic experience on the other. The child fairly soon possesses the knowledge to perform the linguistic skills outlined above. Yet the linguistic experience of the child is both limited and deviant: he hears only certain sentences and many of them are semi-sentences or non-sentences. It has been convincingly argued that mother's speech to very young child is simpler and more clearly structured than is their speech to adults. Nevertheless, it is still not always perfectly structured; and, anyway, the child also learns his language from hearing it used around him, not only to him. In addition, what the child is actually exposed to is not the 'rules' of sentence-production and sentence-interpretation themselves, but only 'individual sentences in individual situations' (Slobin: 1971, p. 56). Slobin poses the question that arises in the mind of an investigator who considers this disparity:

> 'How, then, does he acquire the underlying linguistic system on the basis of such evidence ?'
>
> (P. 56)

Whereas it could be argued that much of our vocabulary is learnt by rote, it is impossible to maintain that we learn our sentences by rote. Language learning must involve the acquisition of a set of rules whereby we can 'extend a limited amount of experience with a limited number of sentences to the capacity to produce and understand an unlimited number of sentences' (Slobin, p. 3).

This point of view leads to two conclusions about language acquisition which contrast with the views of the behaviourists. Firstly, it must be concluded that the mind is not merely passively recording the data of sense; it is actively involved in constructing a grammatical system. Chomsky stresses this point in his Language and Mind (1968):

> '... normal human intelligence is capable of acquiring knowledge through its own resources, perhaps making use of the data of sense but going on to construct a cognitive system in terms of concepts and principles that are developed on independent grounds.'
> (p. 3)

Elsehwere Chomsky refers to this ability as a 'hypothesis-formulating' ability. The mind sifts through the utterances to which it is exposed, sorting out the relevant from the irrelevant, the acceptable from the deviant, finding the deeper, underlying structures of sentences. On the basis of this, a hypothesis is formulated - i.e. a tentative system of rules; then the mind proceeds to use this hypothesis to sort out further data, extending and amending the original system in the process. Thus a set of rules is gradually built up in the mind of the speaker.

Secondly, it must be assumed that the mind is specially programmed or set in a way which makes it possible for it to process 'the sorts of structures that characterize language'. Miller (1964) points out that there must be certain built-in restrictions on the manner in which the mind processes the linguistic data to which it is exposed:

> 'A language-learning automaton could not possibly discover a suitable grammar unless some strong a priori assumptions were built in to it from the start.'

These assumptions limit the alternatives the mind can consider: they must indicate to the mind the sorts of facts to look for; they must be used by the mind to test whether a particular hypothesis is acceptable or not - i.e. whether the system of rules make it possible for the speaker to produce and understand an infinite number of sentences or not.

On these grounds, it can be argued that the conditioning theory of learning is totally inadequate to explain language acquisition. Katz and

Postal (1964) sum up the situation as follows:

> 'Thus, according to Chomsky, the trouble with the conditioning theory conception of how a language is learned is that straightforward generalization of the syntactic regularities in the small, heterogeneous corpus of sentences and nonsentences to which the child is exposed cannot account for the basic fact that what is learned (on the basis of the corpus) is a highly complex deductive theory capable of generating and structuring the infinitely many sentences of the language.'
>
> (p. 172)

To this, Miller (1964) adds:

> 'No careful schedule of rewards for correct or punishment for incorrect utterances is necessary. It is sufficient that the child be allowed to grow up naturally in an environment where language is used.'

2.4 The Grammars: Structural to Transformational

All this evidence suggests that it is not adequate merely to describe surface behaviour. Chomsky concludes that, in order to cope with all the facts of language, it is necessary to distinguish between a speaker's <u>competence</u> and his <u>performance</u>:

> 'It has, I believe, become quite clear that if we are ever to understand how language is used or acquired, then we must abstract for separate and independent study a cognitive system, a system of knowledge and belief, that develops in early childhood and that interacts with many other factors to determine the kinds of behavior that we observe; to introduce a technical term, we must isolate and study the system of <u>linguistic competence</u>.'
>
> (1968, p. 4)

This 'competence' contrasts with 'performance' – the particular acts of construction and interpretation in particular places and at particular times. Competence, on the other hand, is the speaker's intuitive set of creative rules which he applies during performance. The acts of performance are the incomplete, deviant utterances which the speaker produces and from which the child basically learns his language; the rules of competence are the abstract, perfect knowledge of 'an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech-community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of

attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance' (Chomsky: 1965, p. 3).

This distinction leads to two further distinctions - between language and speech on the one hand, and between the sentence and the utterance on the other. These distinctions were recognised long before Chomsky - at least as far back a F. de Saussure - but modern linguistics, under the influence of the behaviourist theory of psychology and the related structural approach to linguistics, has tended to ignore or obscure the distinctions. Thus Chomsky and others have seen the vital need to re-emphasise these contrasts.

A sentence is regarded as an abstract structure which is composed in accordance with the set of rules in a speaker's competence. An utterance, on the other hand, is an actual stretch of speech defined by Harris as 'any stretch of talk, by one person, before and after which there is silence on the part of that person'. There is no necessary correspondence between utterances and sentences. Harris goes on to say that the utterance 'is, in general, not identical with the "sentence" (as that term is commonly used), since a great many utterances in English, for example,consist of simple words, phrases, "incomplete sentences", etc. Many utterances are composed of parts which are linguistic equivalents to whole utterances occurring elsewhere.' (Quoted in Lyons: 1968, p. 172)

A language is a set of sentences; it is therefore an abstract object. Speech, on the other hand, consists of a series of concrete verbal acts. These two will obviously not always mirror each other, since utterances do not always correspond to sentences. Katz and Postal (1964) compare language to a symphony and speech to performances of a symphony:

> 'But just as symphonic performances are not invariant realizations of a symphony, so speech performances are not invariant realizations of the abstract objects that comprise the language. In both cases, besides the competence of performers who have learned the appropriate abstract objects, many other parameters partially determine the character of the actual performances, among which are the skills and abilities of the performers, the context of the performance, and the character of the audience.'
>
> (p. ix)

A further distinction which follows from these two is that between grammaticality and acceptability. The former belongs to the study of competence and the latter (in terms of Chomsky's approach) to the study of performance. An utterance is grammatical if it is constructed in terms of the sentence rules of a speaker's competence. It is acceptable

if it is easily understood, natural, and suitable to the occasion. Thus a particular utterance may be grammatical without being acceptable and vice versa.

To sum up: Competence is the abstract set of intuitive rules that are required by the native speaker to be able to produce all the grammatical sequences of his language (i.e. the sentences); performance is the actual use of the language - i.e. the production of acceptable stretches of speech (i.e. utterances) in concrete situations.

Chomsky (1966) sums up the relevance of these conclusions to the task of the linguist: he has to 'determine from the data of performance the underlying system of rules that has been mastered by the speaker-hearer and that he puts to use in actual performance' (p. 11).

It is for these reasons that Chomsky finds the Structural approach to linguistic description - the Bloomfieldian and post-Bloomfieldian approach based on empiricism and behaviourism - inadequate. They meet only what Chomsky regards as the lowest level of success in grammatical description - the observational level. The aim here is merely to classify the data accurately. The first stage is the classification of phonemes, since sounds are the raw data of speech. Next sequences of phonemes are grouped as certain types of morphemes. Finally, the sequences of morphemes are classified as syntactic constituents. The syntactic description of the sentence is done in the form of immediate constituent analysis, based on the idea that sentences are not just linear sequences of elements, but are composed of 'layers' of immediate constituents, each lower-level constituent forming part of a higher-level constituent. Bloomfield gave the example of 'Poor John ran away': here the ultimate constituents are 'poor', 'John', 'ran' and 'away'; the words 'poor' and 'John' are immediate constituents of one construction, 'poor John'; 'ran' and 'away' are immediate constituents of another construction, 'ran away'; and finally, the two constructions 'poor John' and 'ran away' are immediate constituents of the overal construction, 'Poor John ran away'.

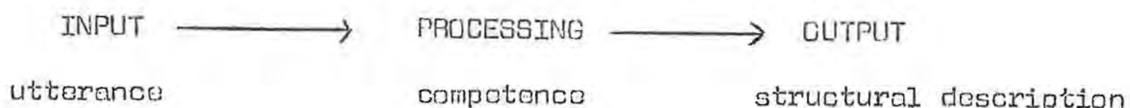
The basic task of the linguist, according to the Structuralists, is to devise what Chomsky calls 'discovery methods' that can enable him to arrive at this classification as objectively as possible - i.e. without referring to any mental capacities or mental processes. 'Language' here is regarded as 'an inventory of elements' (Chomsky: 1964, p. 23), and the focus is on systems of elements rather than on systems of rules.

'Grammar' is a description of these elements; therefore grammar is merely a collection of the elements that have been found to appear in that language.

Now, Chomsky argues that it is not sufficient merely to classify the data accurately. This cannot account for the speaker's linguistic intuition, or competence. Competence is not immediately observable in the data, much of which is irrelevant and deviant anyway. The linguist needs, therefore, to eliminate the irrelevancies and deviations that that appear in a given corpus as a result of the vagaries of performance; and he needs to penetrate the surface structures to find the deep regularities of sentence structure. There is thus a second level of success in grammatical description, which Chomsky calls the level of descriptive adequacy. A grammar which meets this level gives us a 'correct account of the linguistic intuition of the native speaker, and specifies the observed data (in particular) in terms of significant generalizations that express the regularities of the language' (1964, p. 28). Here the linguist aims to go beyond the 'elaboration of tests and collections of evidence to the construction of some theoretical explanation for what is observed' (1968, p. 12).

The means whereby the linguist arrives at these conclusions are irrelevant. The emphasis here is not so much on the data itself or the ways of arriving at a description of the data. It is the result - the generalizations about the linguistic knowledge of the speaker - that is important. The linguist uses any means at his disposal, including 'intuition, guess work, all sorts of methodological hints, reliance on past experience, etc' (Chomsky: 1957, p. 56). As Lyons says, 'the proof of the pudding is in the eating': 'Just as the proof of a mathematical theorem can be checked without taking account of the way in which the person constructing the proof happened to hit upon the relevant intermediate propositions, so it should be with respect to grammatical analysis' (1970, p. 40).

The linguist, then, has in mind the aim which is suggested by the following diagram:



The speaker's conceptence, during speech perception, assigns a description to a given utterance, enabling him to interpret the utterance. A

grammatical description which meets the level of descriptive adequacy can be regarded, says Chomsky (1964), in part, as 'an attempt to specify the information available in principle (i.e. apart from limitation of attention, memory, etc) to [a speaker] that makes [him] capable of understanding an arbitrary utterance ... In evaluating a particular ... grammar, we ask whether the information that it gives about language is correct, that is, whether it describes the linguistic intuition of the speaker ' (p. 36).

In order to achieve this level of adequacy, Chomsky found it necessary to devise a new system of grammar, since the preceding model was unable to cope with the kind of information one needed to include in a grammatical description in order to attain this level. The system he arrived at has come to be known as Transformational-Generative Grammar, frequently abbreviated to Transformational Grammar or simply TG.. Since the information available to the speaker is a set of rules rather than an inventory of items, he needed a grammar which was rule-based rather than element-based. Furthermore, in order to cope with the fact that the number of possible sentences is infinite, it was necessary that the rules should not merely be a summary of the finite, observed corpus with which the linguist works; it should also be able to project from this to an infinite set of sentences. 'That is to say, the grammar must have predictive power.' (Fowler: 1971, p. 5) In both these respects, the Structuralist and post-Structuralist approaches were inadequate. Chomsky therefore aimed at a grammar which would be 'a system of rules that can iterate to generate an indefinite number of structures' (1965, pp. 15 - 16). This system of rules can be analysed into three major components - the syntactic, phonological and semantic.

In order to have a syntactic component that could cater for the kind of information which the native speaker intuitively feels about sentences, Chomsky needed a new kind of syntax. Bloomfield's IC analysis was quite inadequate. It is true that Bloomfield had made certain advances on Traditional Grammar: his description of form-classes was less notional and more formal; and he placed greater stress on the phrase as an intermediate structure between the sentence and the word and more consistently and explicitly indicated the hierarchy of the sentence. However, he had failed to integrate his phrasal analysis with his form-class description. The result was that in one respect his grammar was inferior to Traditional Grammar - i.e. it provided an unlabelled structural description of the sentence. Thus, for example, his description of 'Poor John ran away' does not indicate the parts of speech of the words, nor the type and function of the phrases. Chomsky therefore

looked to the post-Bloomfieldian developments, which he calls the 'taxonomic' grammars (e.g. Pike, Harris), since these try to overcome the defects of Bloomfield's system by integrating the categorial information about the sentence with with phrase-structure analysis of the sentence. They thus provide a labelled description of the sentence.

Chomsky set about trying to re-organise this approach on a rule-basis, but found it totally inadequate to account for the speaker's intuition He illustrates their drawbacks by comparing the following two sentences:

(1) John is easy to please.
(2) John is eager to please.

He points out that a native speaker of English intuitively feels that these two are different in structure and meaning. In (1), the relation of 'please' to 'John' is the same as in 'This pleases John' (i.e. Verb-Object): while in (2) the relationship of 'John' to 'please' is the same as in 'John pleases us' (i.e. Subject-Verb). This sort of information cannot be shown in the taxonomic system, since the latter provides one labelled structural description (or P-marker) for both. Chomsky felt that, while a common P-marker was adequate to act as the basis for a phonetic interpretation of the sentences, it was not adequate to provide one with a semantic interpretation. He came to the conclusion, therefore, that underlying this P-marker, there are two different P-markers, one for each semantic interpretation. Each sentence thus has what he calls a 'deep structure', which contains all the information necessary for a semantic interpretation. This deep structure is represented by an underlying P-marker. Each sentence also has a'surface structure', represented by a derived P-marker. The problem with taxonomic grammars was that they described only the surface structre. This was adequate where the surface structure closely resembled the deep structure, but not when they were substantially different.

Chomsky thus arrived at a syntactic component which 'specifies an infinite set of abstract formal objects, which incorporate all information relevant to the interpretation [i.e. semantic and phonetic] of a sentence'. This compenent is divided into two sub-components: firstly, there is the base, which is a system of rules which generate a set of base strings, each of which is given a structural description by means of a base Phrase-marker, which describes the deep structure of the sentence. Secondly, there is the transformational sub-component, which consists of a set of rules that operate on base strings to give derived strings. These are structurally described by derived phrase-markers, which eventually account for the surface structure of sentences. The 'rules'

of the syntactic component are represented in the form of symbolic notation – the 're-write' or P-rules and the transformational or T-rules. Each P-marker, furthermore, is shown in the form of a diagram known as a 'branching-tree' diagram.

As regards the other two components, it can be said that the semantic component 'assigns a semantic interpretation to a string of formatives with a specified (deep) syntactic structure'; while the phonological component 'converts a string of formatives with a specified (surface) structure into a phonetic representation' (Chomsky: 1964, p. 60).

If a linguist set about drawing up a grammar that would meet both of the above levels of success (i.e. observational and descriptive), he might reach a stage where there are three or four possible descriptions, all of which describe the speaker's intuition and are in accordance with the data. The question would then arise as to which was the best description. Chomsky maintains that the best one is that which is tied to a general linguistic theory which provides the basis of selection. He calls this the third level of success – the level of explanatory adequacy. The linguist must construct a linguistic theory that describes the linguistic univerals (reminiscent of Traditional Grammar) that act as general restraints on selection of grammars and parallel the innate selection restrictions of the mind that operates as the child builds up his particular grammar.

Here the linguist has the following situation in mind:

corpus grammar (competence)

The aim is to describe the 'black box' in between that enables the child to construct for himself a grammar that will best enable him to produce and understand an infinite number of sentences in his language. McNeill (1966) describes the situation as follows:

> 'Its /i.e. the black box's/ input is a corpus of speech: its output is a grammatical system. Just as an engineering student, we need a theory of its internal structure.'

Chomsky (1964) sums up this aim as follows:

> 'A third and still higher level of success is achieved when the associated linguistic theory provides a general basis for selecting a grammar that achieves the second level of success over other grammars consistent with the relevant observed data that do not achieve this level of success. In this case, we can say that the linguistic theory in question suggests an

> explanation for the linguistic intuition of the native speaker. It can be interpreted as asserting that the data of the observed kind will enable a speaker whose intrinsic capacities are as represented in this general theory to construct for himself a grammar that characterizes exactly this linguistic intuition.'
>
> (p. 28)

This linguistic theory must be restrictive enough so as not to allow the construction of grammars that are not in accordance with the linguistic intuition of the speaker. At the same time, it must not be so restrictive as to exclude any known language.

The main aim, then, of the linguist when faced with the data of a particular language is to construct a grammar of that particular language in accordance with the restraints of a general linguistic theory. Only in this way can he deal with all the facts of language ability and language acquisition.

2.5 Transformational Grammar: Recent Developments

It is basically this view of 'grammar' which has come to dominate the linguistic scene - a mentalist approach which seeks to describe the linguistic intuition of the speaker of a language.

There have, however, in recent years been a number of reactions to the Chomskyan approach to grammar. The basic complaint has been against Chomsky's idea of an ideal theory that posits objects in abstraction from any social factors that may enter into the linguistic situation. Chomsky seems to have over-reacted to the Bloomfield-Behaviourist situation-dominated approach to the extent where he has excluded the situation altogether instead of seeing it in perspective. Such linguists as Hymes have therefore questioned Chomsky's definition of 'competence', maintaining that it does not account fully for the speaker's intuition. It is almost as if the post-Chomskyans are putting Chomsky under the same kind of microscope under which he placed his predecessors:

Firstly, there are certain sentences which a native speaker would produce only under certain conditions and which he would be able to understand only in a certain context. For example:

(1) Í want to go to town.

(2) I want to go to tówn.

These two sentences have the same deep and surface structure. The only difference would come in the phonetic representation derived from the surface structure. Now, Chomsky maintains that the deep structure contains all the information necessary for the semantic interpretation of a sentence. In terms of Chomsky's idea of what a 'semantic interpretation' is, he is obviously correct. However, any native speaker would know that the first of these is linked with a questions such as: 'Who wants to go to town ?', while the second is linked with a question like: 'Where do you want to go ?' Hymes feels that this indicates a kind of 'situational' knowledge on the part of the speaker which, together with his grammatical knowledge, helps him both to produce the sentences and understand them.

Secondly, a speaker knows what kind of language to choose to suit both the linguistic and the social context, and he reacts to other people's choice of language in terms of his knowledge of what is appropriate. Pit Corder (1973) puts it thus:

> 'A native speaker must not only be able to produce and understand grammatically well-formed utterances, he must also be able to produce and understand utterances which are appropriate to the context in which they are made. It is just as much a matter of "competence" in language to be able to produce appropriate utterances as grammatical ones.'
>
> (p. 92)

Hymes (1971) therefore argues for a wider definition of competence, adopting the term 'communicative competence' from Wales and Campbell. Much of what Chomsky excludes from competence and includes instead under performance, is now transferred to a more comprehensive kind of competence. The latter is regarded as consisting of two aspects, the 'formation rules' or language and the 'speaking rules'. The first accounts for grammaticality and the second for appropriateness. Thus one can say that the general term 'communicative competence' really contains two kinds of competence - 'grammatical competence' and 'stylistic competence'. From one point of view, it may be argued that this is a matter of simple addition to Chomsky, but this is not entirely so, since, as Hymes points out, grammatical competence itself is partially determined by social factors. This recalls De Saussure's contention that langue is a 'social fact'. The broader definition of competence has simultaneously led to a narrower definition of performance - i.e. the actual use of language. The conditions affecting use are no longer part of performance but part of competence.

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This revised view of the speaker's knowledge of his language leads to a revised picture of the speaker's acquisition of this knowledge. Hymes puts it thus:

> 'Within the developmental matrix in which knowledge of the sentences of the language is acquired, children also acquire a knowledge of the ways in which sentences are used. From a finite experience of speech acts and their interdependence with socio-cultural features, they develop a general theory of the speaking appropriate in their community, which they employ, like other forms of tacit cultural knowledge (competence), in the conducting and interpreting of social life ...'
>
> (p. 275)

This approach leads to a TG grammar which is semantic based rather than syntax based. Whereas the standard model begins with a syntactic deep structure of the sentence which is interpreted by a set of semantic rules, the 'semantic based model starts off with the structure of the "message" which is then progressively transformed by a series of rules into surface syntactic categories and relations' (Pit Corder: 1973, p. 193). Fillmore's 'case grammar' is a case in point here.

At present this new approach is still in its infancy. Pit Corder (1973) sums up the position as follows:

> 'Linguistic theories simply do not exist at the present time which give more than an anecdotal account of the relations between sentences in discourse or dialogue or the way in which utterances vary systematically in relation to differences in situational context.'
>
> (p. 93)

Although Pit Corder leaves out of account a text such as Van Dijk's Some Aspects of Text Grammar, the essence of his contention is nevertheless true.

What is also not clear is exactly how this affects the definition of 'grammar'. Chomsky said that grammar was the description of the speaker's intuitive competence; and therefore a sentence was 'grammatical' if it conformed to this knowledge. Now 'competence' has been broadened to include stylistic appropriateness as well. The question now is whether 'grammar' is the study of 'communicative competence' or of 'grammatical competence' only. In this Thesis, the following terminology is used: 'grammar' is taken to be the study of 'communicative competence'; and this competence is regarded as consisting of 'grammatical' and 'stylistic' competence. A distinction is thus drawn between the subject grammar and the speaker's grammatical knowledge of sentence-rules.

CHAPTER 111

The Aims of Grammar Teaching

It is perhaps unfortunate that grammar is one of the oldest subjects in the school curriculum and has for many years been a compulsory subject at all levels in South Africa. Because of the security afforded the subject by tradition it once enjoyed an unchallenged position; this has meant that for a long time few educationists in this country have questioned its value. The aims have thus seldom been explicitly formulated.

This lack of formulation has led to a number of dangers. Firstly, it means that some teachers tend to assume that the subject is of value, without ever really deciding exactly what this value is. This results in a type of teaching which is not dominated by a purpose - an essential for all effective teaching. Secondly, there are those who have picked up one or two of all the possible aims without critically examining these to find out whether or not they are worthwhile and whether or not they are the only aims. This means that the teacher may proceed to teach his subject oblivious of the fact that his aims are not worthwhile or of the fact that there may be other, more worthwhile, aims. Furthermore, since it is taken for granted that these partial aims are not only worthwhile but also valid or practicable, the teacher seldom tries to investigate whether they are, in fact, being achieved or not. Thus his whole approach to the subject is never called into question, and this in turn means that the need for improvement is simply never considered. On the other hand, when certain teachers do examine the results of their teaching and find that the aims they have taken for granted are not being realised, they fall into the trap of becoming diffident or rejecting grammar outright. They do not take into account the fact that there might be other aims which are practicable and which might make it worthwhile teaching the subject despite the failure to achieve the aims they had taken for granted as being the only ones.

It is thus clear that in South Africa there is a definite need to conduct a critical examination into the aims of teaching grammar.

In Chapter 11 the aims of studying grammar at an academic level were outlined. It was stated there that the dominant aims for many years

that motivated linguistic research was a pragmatic one - the grammarian aimed to make available to the reading public and exposition of the 'correct' rules of the language. Armed with this expert knowledge, the educated man could then improve his command of the language. The pragmatic aim has, however, in recent years been superseded by another aim, which was recognised previously at various times, but only as a minor one. This is the liberal aim, which sees the study of language as something worthwhile in its own right.

This Chapter is concerned with the aims for teaching a child about his language in the school. The findings of this investigation will determine whether grammar should be taught or not and if so, what is to be taught and how it is to be taught.

3.1 The Liberal Aim

The first question is whether the liberal aim is also valid for schools. In order to answer this question, one needs first to deal with the more general question as to the relative importance of the respective results of the liberal and pragmatic aims - viz understanding and skills. The importance of skills (and therefore pragmatic aims) is never questioned in schools, but what of understanding (and therefore liberal aims) ?

Algeo (1969) maintains that both skills and understanding are essential in a civilised world:

> '... it would seem to be a self-evidence proposition that both kinds of learning and both kinds of knowing are essential if man is to maintain his humanity. Man cannot survive physically without diverse skills, but they are something he shares with machines and with the dumb brute; it is his understanding that makes him man and without it he cannot survive spiritually.'
>
> (p. 274)

One of the fundamental aims of education can be said to be that of making a child aware of his environment and curious to understand himself and the world about him. This greater understanding can lead a child to adopt an attitude of wonder and awe at the whole of creation. It can be argued that this attitude could mean a richer life for the child, a life of appreciation, awe and interest, not one dominated by a blasé acceptance of everything and a narrow interest only in what can increase his comforts or satisfy his appetites. He is more man than animal as a result.

If one examines the school curriculum in general, one can see that most subjects include understanding as at least one of their aims. Algeo (1969) puts it thus:

> 'Most subjects studied in school on whatever level can be sorted into one of two groups depending on whether they are mainly concerned with understanding or with skills. To be sure, all subjects involve a little of both kinds of knowing - but usually one or the other clearly predominates. Thus history, geography, zoology and physics are concerned mainly with knowing about, whereas economics, chorus, and physical education are concerned mainly with knowing how to.'
>
> (p. 277)

If most subjects require some understanding and if there are certain subjects that are concerned almost entirely with understanding, then it seems strange that grammar should be the one subject singled out to be judged solely on pragmatic grounds. The question posed by educationists like Gurrey is: is it useful ? If it is not, throw it out; if it is, there might be a case for retaining it. But these very critics would probably not dream of asking whether it is 'useful' of the average child to know that there is ice at the North Pole or that the formula of water is H_2O or that the French Revolution began in 1787-9. Does knowing how his lungs work help him to breathe any better ? When challenged on this issue, the typical response is: 'Well, this might not actually be useful to the child admittedly; but the child ought to know something about himself and his environment. Otherwise, not only will he be spiritually poverty-stricken, but also he will simply be be rejected in society as a barbaric philistine.' But the same argument does not seem to be applied to grammar either as an additional aim by those who accept its pragmatic value or as the only aim by those who reject its utilitarian value. One reason for this could be that most educationists are still blinded by a powerful traditional bias which has always cast grammar in the light of handmaiden to greater things. It could also be that they tend to conceive of grammar merely as a labelling exercise (as opposed to the building up of a metalanguage), out of relation to options in behaviour and as unrelated to literature.

But even where there are educationists who recognise that there is also a liberal reason for teaching grammar, they tend to argue that one cannot teach everything one considers of intrinsic value - the curriculum is overcrowded as it is. One needs therefore to be selective, and this, they feel, means the exclusion of grammar in favour of other subjects. O'Malley (1964), for example, in an article significantly

entitled 'One More Irrelevance', writes as follows on the question of introducing a new approach:

> 'In an over-crowded curriculum ... a new study that is good in itself may still do not harm. For decades, new subjects have been forcing their way into the schools, until the urgent question is not what may still be added but what can be dropped. Pupils, especially in the sixth forms, are dehumanising themselves. ... the great need now is for a careful consideration of each pupil's total programme; we have to decide whether any addition, subtraction or substitution within his total programme is going to help or hinder him in his essential task - that of becoming more fully human.'
>
> (p. 250)

All this may be true, but it is certainly no argument for excluding grammar (broadly understood) above any other subject. Apart from the pragmatic value it may perform of developing skills necessary for any child to become 'more fully human', what of the liberal function it performs along with other subjects - that of helping the child to understand himself and his environment ? In fact, on liberal grounds, one could argue that grammar should be the first subject to be included. After all, it is concerned with that aspect of our being which most sets us apart from the beasts. As Rosenbaum (1965) puts it, to study grammar is to 'study those abilities which make human beings human'. Palmer (1971a) goes so far as to refer to man not as 'homo sapiens' but as 'homo grammaticus'. To study language is thus to study man, to come to respect man for this remarkable tool which he possesses.

Not only is language an amazing ability which can fascinate a child, but also its very ubiquity is enough reason for studying it. Hayakawa (1952) describes life as a 'niagra of words'. Palmer (1971a) echoes this sentiment:

> 'Few areas of experience are closer to us and more continuously with us than our language. We spend a large part of our waking life speaking, listening and writing.'
>
> (p. 7)

Language, furthermore, is something which is infinitely useful both to the individual and to society.

Now, if language is such a remarkable instrument possessed only by man, if it affects so much of our everyday lives and the very existence of our culture, if it is so useful in so many ways, then surely one can argue with Halliday (1964) that 'everyone should know something of how

his language works'. This does not mean, of course, that every child should have to master the intricacies of linguistic science, but that he should simply have some knowledge of the structures and operations of his language and how this both reflects an aspect of the human mind and ties in with behaviour. On these grounds, then, Jacobs (1971) says:

> 'I believe that language and its system, especially syntax, is in itself worthy of attention at the secondary level, even as the laws of gravity, the structure of the cell, or Cyprian Akwensi's Jagua Nana are, although none of these might help you to spell better, sell more shoes, or make a better cigarette-holder.'
>
> (p. 481)

In fact, in the light of what has been said above, one could alter Jacobs's statement to read 'even more than'. It can be argued thus at this stage that grammar may or may not serve an instrumental role in the high school, but that even if it did not it does serve another role, a liberal function - a function important enough in itself to justify its existence in the high school curriculum.

3.2 The Pragmatic Aims

We turn now to the pragmatic aims of grammar teaching. At school level in South Africa the pragmatic aims have always been regarded as worth-while - even vital - aims for the whole English curriculum. The need for a child to develop his performance skills so as to ensure that he achieves an effective standard of linguistic communication is never questioned in educational circles. All English curricula take as one of their fundamental aims the fact that the child needs language to think, to get to know himself, to communicate with others.

What is called into question today is whether grammar (i.e. explicit knowledge about one's language) has a part to play in achieving the pragmatic aims. If it has, this is a further reason for including grammar in the English curriculum. If it has not, then grammar will be justified in schools solely on the basis of its role as one of the major liberal arts.

This rest of this section (3.2), then, will deal with the role of grammar as regards the various pragmatic aims. In order to come to

any conclusion, it is necessary to investigate the following issues:

1. What are the skills that need to be developed ?
2. How do these develop before high school ?
3. What goes wrong, and why ?
4. What can be done about this ?

3.2.1 Basically, there are two skills involved in language performance that need to be developed in the child: composing and interpreting. The first involves the act of creating one's own sentences or formulations in order to communicate one's thoughts, wishes, etc.; while the second consists of the act of interpreting the formulations produced by someone else in order to arrive at the meaning he or she is trying to convey to one. This two-way communication act can be transmitted either through the medium of sound (speaking, listening) or by means of scratches on paper (writing, reading).

In order to be able to acquire these various skills one needs to develop the ability to perform the two processes of encoding (composing) and decoding (interpreting). To cope with the first process it appears that the mind has to learn to produce a deep structure that contains one's meaning and then transform this into a written or spoken surface structure. On the other hand, to cope with the process of decoding, one's mind has to learn to transform a given surface structure back into the original underlying deep structures in order to obtain a semantic interpretation of the sentence.

It was mentioned in Chapter 11 that, on account of the fact that most of the sentences composed and interpreted are new and that the number of sentences involved is infinite, these skills and processes cannot be based on mere memory and recall. It was argued that, in order to explain these, one is forced to resort to the belief that the human being develops a 'competence', or set of linguistic rules, which enable him both to synthesise and analyse deep structures and to transform from deep to surface and from surface to deep structure.

It was also pointed out in Chapter 11 that it is not sufficient that one develop only this kind of competence - i.e. a <u>grammatical</u> competence. It is also necessary to be able to produce sentences that are suited to the context and to understand sentences in the light of the particular

context. In order to do this, the speaker also requires a stylistic competence. He needs a grammatical competence in order to produce and understand 'grammatical' sentences in his language; and he also requires a stylistic competence in order to produce 'acceptable' sentences and appreciate those of others. In other words, he needs what Hymes (1971) calls a 'communicative' competence.

The skills, then, that need to be developed are those of composing and interpreting through the spoken and written media; the processes necessary to perform these skills are respectively called encoding and decoding; and these processes presuppose a communicative (grammatical-cum-stylistic) competence.

3.2.2 How does the child acquire the communicative competence necessary to be able to perform the processes necessary for him to exercise the various language skills ? As was mentioned in Chapter 11, the child is born with a predisposition to language learning. 'Every child,' says Hugh Fraser (1969), 'has language as his brithright.' Utilising his inborn language acquisition device, claims Chomsky, he gradually acquires the language of the society into which he has been born. Recent evidence has suggested that this picture is not entirely accurate, since it leaves out of account the active, stimulating role of the mother. Nevertheless, one can still say that from the moment the child can perceive and produce sound, his internal device begins interacting with his linguistic environment (which includes his mother) to develop his competence, which becomes more and more evident in his growing performance. There are, then, two catalysts in this process. Firstly, there is the child's own natural initiative. Fraser (1969) puts it thus:

> 'The child early on starts to generalize from his language experience and with a fair measure of success predict and produce structures he has not been taught.'
>
> (p. 121)

Gleason (1965) points out that this initiative involves a two-prong programme - 'copious observation of the language of others' combined with 'a great deal of personal experimentation' (p. 476). Secondly, his parents and other interested parties also teach him what he may not acquire naturally (or, at any rate, may take long to acquire on his own) and they correct any erroneous information he may have acquired.

As a result of this double action, by the time the child reaches school he usually has a remarkably sophisticated competence and a well-developed performance. His voabulary, for example, contains, according to one estimate, about 5 000 - 6 000 words and he can handle a large number of syntactic structures in many different contexts with considerable ease. At this stage, however, he is able to do this only through the medium of the spoken word. Widdowson (1972) describes his level of development at this stage as follows:

> 'This knowledge or competence (in Chomsky's terms) happens up to this point in the child's development to have been realised exclusively through the reception and production of speech.'
>
> (p. 207)

Widdowson goes on to explain that the child has now to be taught to transfer his competence to a different medium - he has to be taught to read and write. Having been initially taught to do these, his own initiative once again comes into play and helps to develop these skills still further.

Thus by the time the child reaches high school, he has a well-developed communicative competence, which manifests itself in the child's ability to produce and understand setences in both the spoken and the written medium.

3.2.3 Pit Corder (1973) makes the following observation concerning the typical speaker's performance:

> 'All learners make mistakes. This is not confined to language learners. We all make mistakes when we are speaking our mother tongue.'
>
> (p. 256)

Some of these 'mistakes', continues Pit Corder, are simply 'lapses' that occur when a speaker is applying his knowledge in actual performance - 'slips or false starts or confusions of structure' (p. 259). These are caused by such factors as memory limitations, distractions, emotional states, shifts of attention, etc. There is, however, a second class of mistakes made by native speakers - those that seem to proceed from an imperfect competence on the part of the speakers. In fact, a 'perfect' competence is an abstract construct which no speaker ever actually attains. An actual speaker's competence may be compared with the Platonic shadow, while the 'competence' describe by the linguist may be likened to the 'Idea'. Chomsky stresses, in Aspects of the Theory

<u>of Syntax</u> (1965), that the latter competence is the linguistic knowledge of 'an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly' (p. 3).

When, however, the educationist thinks of a child's imperfect competence, he is not usually measuring it up so much against this hypothetical model (what Hymes, following Kenneth Burke, calls the 'representative anecdote') as against a more realistic goal based on his observation of people who are said to 'use the language well'. But if it is remembered that these people include such figures as Churchill and Tennyson, it becomes clear that the goal is nevertheless demanding and that very few children ever achieve even this 'target' competence.

There is thus always room for improvement in <u>any</u> high school child's competence so as to effect improvement in his performance. Some children, however, will have more room for improvement than others because, although all children are born with a capacity to learn language, certain children, in terms of Hymes's alternative anecdote, are born with a better 'flair' for languages than others. Heredity, however, is not the only factor here; a child's linguistic experience also plays a role - some children have a richer language environment than others, from which they can infer the linguistic rules which comprise their competence; some are also more strongly helped and encouraged than others, both at home and at school. When they reach Standard Six (the first year in the high school), then, they are hardly likely to have exactly equivalent competences (or performances).

There are basically two ways in which a child's competence may be defective: firstly, it may be lacking or deficient in some respect or other (i.e. certain aspects of the 'target' competence may be lacking); secondly, it may be faulty (i.e. the child has acquired 'incorrect' information). Both of these may be aggravated by the fact that an inadequate performance also arises from the fact that children cannot always transfer what knowledge they have from the theoretical level to actual speech acts - many of their resources remain an untapped potential.

These two defects occur in both aspects of the communicative competence - the grammatical and the stylistic. The first results (from a productive point of view) in what Pit Corder calls 'breaches of the code' - deviations from the rules of the standard dialect. Stylistic (productive) errors are different: here it is not <u>linguistic</u> norms which are being

broken but contextual ones – the language fails to match the 'social, technical, intentional and emotional differences in situation' (Pit Corder). From a receptive point of view, defects in competence lead to a lack of comprehension on the one hand, and to a failure to appreciate stylistic variations on the other.

These grammatical and stylistic defects can occur at various levels. Traditionally it is acknowledged that a child's competence may be inadequate at the lexical level, resulting in such productive errors as malapropisms, mispronunciations, misspellings and 'verbal blanks'. Hugh Fraser (1969), however, makes the following observation about children's competences:

> 'In the past we have perhaps tended to concentrate on extending children's vocabulary resources, but there are good grounds for supposing that deficiencies in organizational resource are at least as responsible for their difficulties with language.'
>
> (p. 127)

Mittins (1964) goes so far as to say:

> 'Far more serious and widespread [than lexical weakness] is inadequacy in syntax. This occurs very frequently, in school and after school, at all levels of society and in all kinds of situations.'
>
> (p. 92)

As far as grammatical competence is concerned, faulty and deficient syntactic knowledge leads to such errors as 'run-on' sentences, faulty parallel sentences, concord errors, false elipses, etc. The main problem from a stylistic point of view is the monotony of structure that results from a poor stylistic competence. Mittins (1964) says:

> 'This lack of versatility in sentence structure seems to me to be rooot cause of the poverty-stricken, threadbare quality of much contemporary writing (not to mention speech).'
>
> (p. 93)

This results in the over-use of certain types of sentences (e.g. co-ordinated or periodic sentences), long and involved sentences, ambiguities, repetition of the same conjunction, etc.

3.2.4 The problem facing the high school English teacher, then, is the fact that his pupils, although possessing highly developed competences, are by no means adequately proficient in their knowledge and use of the language: their competences seem defective at both the grammatical and stylistic levels, resulting in defective expressive and receptive performance in both the written and the spoken media.

The questions which arise from this situation are as follows: Firstly, what steps need to be taken to improve a child's competence (and hence, hopefully, his performance as well) ? Secondly, how is all this to be done ?

There are two basic needs here, one positive and the other negative. In the first place, it is necessary to strengthen the child's existing resources (e.g. converting a passive vocabulary into a working one) and to add new information to these resources (e.g. new words or sentence structures). Secondly, there is a need to correct and eliminate any erroneous information the child has acquired (e.g. false concords, mispronunciations, etc.).

But how is this to be done ? The answer must be sought in the light of the way in which the child has been learning his language before he reaches high school. It was mentioned in 3.2.2 that a child has a natural inclination to acquire his language. Throughout his high school career - in fact, for the rest of his life - this natural process will continue to develop his linguistic resources in the ways described above. By chatting to friends, by reading newspapers, novels and magazines, by listening to the radio, by watching television, the child's linguistic competence will be strengthened, enlarged and 'corrected'. Left to himself, therefore, the high school child will probably effect certain improvements automatically, both consciously and unconsciously, in his competence.

But this is not enough. Even in the early years, as was mentioned in 3.2.2, parents and other interested adults work on the assumption that a purely spontaneous linguistic development is a limited, hit-and-miss affair. It is therefore felt that adult intervention, both at home and at school, is essential for the child on his journey to linguistic maturity. The English programme at school, therefore, tries to make more opportunities available for the child both to practise production

of sentences and to gain more experience in interpreting those of others. The child is thus encouraged to engage in linguistic activities involving listening, reading, speaking, writing, acting, and so on. In this way, it is hoped that the child will be able to pursue his natural inclination to improve his knowledge of his language by providing him with a richer linguistic environment from which to infer the various rules that comprise his competence.

With this no one would disagree. Where complete consensus of opinion is, however, lacking is regarding the question of a more 'structured' approach in addition to the above 'opportunistic' intervention. This approach involves the use of grammar - a programme which systematically aims to train the child to use specific structures, etc.

There are two ways in which the structured approach can use grammar - informally or formally. In the first case, the teacher will use the various concepts and structures described by grammars, but he will not use any of the terminology or definitions. The formal way, on the other hand, involves not only teaching the <u>use</u> of the various concepts and structures but also teaching <u>about</u> these - i.e. building up a meta-language. This distinction can be clarified by way of an illustration. If the teacher were aiming to teach the formation of questions, he could use grammar in two different ways to do this. The informal way would involve giving the child a typical statement and a question formed from it:

He will go : Will he go ?

Then the teacher would give a list of statements and ask the child to convert all of them into questions in the same way that the example is done. In this way it is hoped that the child will infer the generalisations involved - i.e. moving the auxiliary to the front - and apply this rule intuitively to all situations where he wishes to frame a question.

The formal approach would mean that the teacher, having done the above, would then sum this up by describing the structures and operations involved here: in a statement sentence, the Subject-NP comes first and then the Predicate-VP; to form a question from this, one moves the first auxiliary out of the VP to stand in front of the Subject-NP. The formal approach, then, does not merely leave the matter to the child's intuition - it also presents him with an <u>explicit</u> account of what is involved here.

At any rate, it is the structured approach - formal or informal - which is the bone of contention in educational circles. Many are sceptical as to whether grammar can be used to effect improvements in the child's competence and performance. As far as this Thesis is concerned, the relevant issue is whether the formal approach - the building up of a metalanguage - can help to achieve all this: Firstly, it has already been argued that there is a sound case for teaching grammar for its own sake. Therefore the question simply becomes whether the knowledge about his language which is taught for liberal reasons can alter the competence of the child, or at any rate, whether there is any transfer of learning to language behaviour. Secondly, if the 'structured' approach in general (formal or informal) can contribute towards the pragmatic aims, then the formal approach is the more effective approach, since it can do all that the informal approach can, plus more - the metalanguage involved in the formal approach makes it possible to discuss problems, rules, stylistic devices, etc. It might be added, in passing, however, that the question is not whether formal grammatical knowledge can achieve all of the pragmatic aims of teaching English, or whether it can achieve even some of these on its own; the question is whether formal grammatical knowledge can play a significant part in achieving those aims.

The next two sub-sectionsof the Chapter, then, will investigate this issue by examining the role of a knowledge of grammar in improving a child's linguistic skills - i.e. 3.2.5: composition (at both grammatical and stylistic levels) and 3.2.6: interpretation (also at both levels).

3.2.5 The first question is: Does a knowledge of grammar (i.e. information about competence) help a child to 'write better', in both the grammatical and stylistic senses of this phrase ? In other words, does this knowledge help the child to improve the grammatical 'correctness' of the sentences he uses as well as the style or aesthetic quality of those sentences ?

For many years the controversy about the role of grammar in this respect was waged purely on the basis of personal experience, reasoning and deep-set traditional prejudices. Fries (1952) points out that during this time the defenders of grammar won the day hands down.

However, with the 'coming of the measurement movement in education' at the beginning of this century, there came 'the first really effective challenge of the asserted connection between grammar and good English' (p. 19).

Early experimental evidence seemed to suggest that there is little or no connection between explicit knowledge about one's language and being able to write well. As early as 1906, Hoyt conducted an experiment involving three tests, one in grammar, one in composition and one in interpretation, administered to 200 first-year high school pupils in Indianopolis. Hoyt reported a correlation as low as ,18 between grammar and composition ability, and even went so far as to say that there was no more correlation between these than may be expected between any other two totally different subjects. These findings were confirmed in Minneapolis in 1913 by Rapeer, who, in a similar experiment, found a correlation of ,23.

There followed, in the 1920's and 1930's, says Evans (1959/67), a spate of experiments. He concludes that

> 'tests devised and conducted by educationists seemed to prove that there is little demonstrable correlation between training in formal grammar and the ability to write.'
>
> (p. 114)

In a minor study conducted in 1926, Segel and Barr found a correlation of ,48 between the results of a test of formal grammar and those of a test of 'applied grammar' (i.e. a test of the ability to choose the 'correct' form). They came to the conclusion that 'formal grammar has no transfer value as far as applied grammar is concerned'. These views were corroborated by further experiments in the 1920's - e.g. Ashe (1923) and Boraas (1929). In 1931 Symonds 're-subjected several of these early paper to experimental tests, using a technique of studying the pupils' ability to correct errors' (Currie: 1973, p. 12). Currie describes his findings as follows:

> 'He did find a small indication of transfer between grammar drilling and error connection, but it was so small a gain, he argued, for such hard drilling, that it seemed worthless as a school method. Symonds reported that he thought the quality of the drills used and the intelligence of the pupils had been responsible for the gains.'
>
> (p. 12)

Some more recent experiments include those of Robinson (1960), who concluded that there was no evidence of a correlation between these two

factors, and Harris (1960), who found, like Hoyt, that 'There is no greater correlation between grammatical knowledge of English and English skills than between two totally unrelated subjects. Indeed, correlations between say arithmetic and grammar are often higher than between grammar and composition.'

There is, then, a considerable amount of evidence which suggests that there is little or no correlation between grammatical knowledge and the ability to write. The question, however, is exactly how reliable all this evidence is. The early experiments (those of Hoyt and Rapeer) can be dismissed without much ado. Their experiments set out to investigate the possibility of a correlation between knowledge of grammar and general composition ability. To gain high marks in the typical school composition test which they used, however, requires far more than merely grammatical skills - e.g. imagination, logical sequencing, effective introductions, etc. The lack of correlation, then, between the results of a test in grammar and one in composition is hardly surprising. The later experiments do, however, single out a specifically grammatical aspect of writing ability - viz 'correctness'. These thus need to be examined more closely. Since the Thesis is a critical, rather than an experimental, one, no attempt will be made to evaluate these experiments fully from a technical point of view. The emphasis here will instead be on some of the underlying assumptions on which these tests are based.

There are, however, a number of technical queries which are not out of place at this juncture. Pit Corder (1973) points out two basic difficulties which cause problems for all evaluation experiments in education. 'The first is that we cannot treat teacher, pupil and materials as single variables' (P. 353). Children vary in a number of respects - sex, age, social background, intelligence, motivation, intelligence, etc. The problem arises from the fact that, if one wishes to compare the results of one test with those of another (e.g. where one group was taught grammar and the other not), one needs to hold all factors under control except the one being investigated. Theoretically speaking, then, one ought to have the <u>same</u> group tested twice by the same teacher. This, of course, is not possible - since, when taught the second time round, they are not really the 'same' children. Therefore, it becomes necessary to have the same teacher presenting the different programmes to two separate but similar groups. The question is - <u>are</u> they so similar ? Pit Corder points out that, while factors such as sex

and age might be easy to control because they can easily be measured, others like 'motivation, intelligence or aptitude present great difficulties in measurement' (p. 353). Thus it is possible to raise the query as to whether the experiments mentioned above were really based on fool-proof comparisons or not.

Another technical point is the problem of the difference in competence of the children who are involved as subjects in an experiment. Ney (1974) points out that the 'language acquisition device' which every child possesses 'has a filtering effect on the input (and possibly on the output)'. The significance of this is that, for some of the children, the sentences used in practice exercises may not be relevant. Ney matintains that 'sentences of various types cannot be readily processed by some youngsters who are at one stage of their development linguistically but can be more readily processed by youngsters who have developed beyond that stage' (p. 162). Therefore, in order to ensure that the group is a homogeneous group and that each comparative group is similarly homogeneous, more effective tests will need to be developed which can evaluate each child's level of linguistic development.

There are four further, less technical, questions which need to be considered here:

1. What is meant by a 'grammar test' in these experiments ?
2. How do we measure the degree of success ? In other words, how high must our aims be ?
3. Were any other means of improvement being applied ?
4. Did the tests take into consideration the content and method of the teaching ?

1. With regard to the first question, one needs to ask how far the grammar tests truly tested grammatical insight, since all sorts of different operations might be included under the designation 'Grammar test'.

2. It is also important to decide how much correlation one expects to find and, even more, in what length of time one expects a correlation to become evident. Smith (1938) argues that, if one were to exclude grammar on the grounds that it cannot affect a total elimination of errors, then one would have to exclude the teaching of all skills. He says:

'On that basis, most teaching of skills and dexterities would be condemned because those who are studying them are not perfect performers. To look at a novice fencing or in golf, or to watch a green football squad blunder through team formations, does not inspire enthusiasm in the spectators. But those who have played these games and who know how difficult they are, do not rush to the conclusion that the whole coaching sytem is a failure and should be abolished. Grant a little more time and practice, and then look at the same players. They may not be world-wide champions ..., but they will most emphatically show more skill than their classmates who have not been coached.'

(pp. 640-1)

Smith maintains that it is on these grounds that most teachers support grammar - not even its foremost protagonists would argue that it is a 'panacea for all the ills of speech', but that it is a useful 'ally' in this task.

It is expected, furthermore, that one might succeed more with one than with another. Not every teacher expects every child to turn out a Churchill any more than a golf coach expects every child to become a Gary Player. But just because we cannot achieve perfection does not mean that we abandon the whole idea of coaching. We go ahead fully realising that no one will ever achieve perfection and that there are many who will never even be particularly good; but we also realise that, without training, they would be even worse.

3. A further problem to be considered is whether grammar was being considered as the _only_ means of achieving these aims. Some of the experiments do actually involve tests where the child has been taught _only_ grammar and composition, and no literature or training in speaking. It would perhaps affect the findings if comparisons were made between the results of two sets of tests - one consisting of a composition and literature test, and the other a composition, literature _and_ grammar test. In other words, it might be found that teaching grammar is only effective as an aid to composition writing when the child is also reading and studying literature. In fact, no one has ever claimed that grammar _alone_ can improve a child's writing ability.

4. The content and method of the teaching have also to be taken into account. Was the _content_ such that it _would_ contribute towards improving writing ability ? This aspect will be enlarged upon later in this Thesis.

For the moment, it might be queried whether the content was clear; whether it contained relevant rules that were simple enough to be applied; and whether the grammar included examples from modern writing of all types, making it a grammar of a living language, not one dealing with dead exhibits: if the grammar is divorced from everyday life, the child would obviously not see that it has any bearing on his own language usage.

Another question as regards content is whether modern grammars, in particular Transformational grammar, would show greater correlation with writing ability (i.e. the linguistic aspects of writing ability) than traditional school grammar appeared to show. It is perhaps significant that nearly all the experiments with negative results quoted above are, in fact, based on tests in traditional school grammar. A fairly recent experiment by Wardhaugh (1967), however, suggests that Transformational grammar would be no more successful in this respect than traditional school grammar. In his experiment, the correlation between an essay test and a test in Transformational grammar was as low as that between an essay test and a traditional grammar test. This test, however, is questionable on the same grounds as those of Hoyt and Rapeer - it does not single out specifically linguistic aspects of the composition for correlation purposes. It may be for this reason that a two-year experiment supported by the U.S. Office of Education (Project Number 1746), reported by Bateman and Zidonis, two of the major investigators, came to a very different conclusion. The experiment was carried out on two randomly chosen classes of ninth-graders, each of whom was assigned to a randomly chosen teacher. For two years the experimental group was taught TG grammar, while the control group was taught no grammar. Writing collected from the two groups at the beginning and end of the two-year project exceeded over 70 000 words. Comparisons were made between the writings of the two classes from the point of view of: (a) proportion of well-formed sentences; (b) syntactic complexity; and (c) error change score. In all three aspects, the experimental group showed a considerably higher gain than the control group. Zidonis concludes that knowledge of TG both increases the proportion of well-formed sentences and reduces the occurrence of certain errors in composition. (Details of scores are reported in the English Journal, 1971, p. 600.)

Eileen McGuire (1971) suggests that the findings of Zidonis are to be expected, since a grammar which is 'operational' in approach is more

likely to contribute to better writing than one which is not. She quotes from an article by James Squire (1964) to support her argument:

> 'Young people consciously grapple with complex new sentence forms to express complex new ideas .... The exploding world of early adolescence, characterized by the discovery of many new ideas, almost inevitably leads to problems in expression .... During these years, teachers might best plan a sequence of composition that nourishes and encourages expansion of ideas, rather than one so demanding that it restricts the fluency of student thinking.'

At the risk of over-quoting at this stage, it is necessary to cite McGuire's excellent summary of the possible role of TG at this particular stage in the child's life:

> 'When a student is "grappling" with forms and ideas, a grammar of rigid classifications and static relationships offers little in the way of immediate help. He needs a grammar that moves with his thought, that is some way parallels the process going on in his mind. Generative grammar seems to provide this help.'

She quotes Bateman and Zidonis, who argue that the 'study of a systematic grammar which is a theoretical model of the process of sentence production is the logical way to modify the process itself'. No one, says McGuire, would maintain that a writer actually composes sentences according to mechanical rules, but, as Bateman and Zidonis contend, 'statistical analysis suggests ... that there is a relation between a knowledge of generative grammar and an ability to produce well-formed sentences of greater structural complexity'.

Smith (1938) stresses that the method, too, of the teaching must be taken into account:

> '... the character of the teaching upon which the experiments were based will need to be considered.'

There is very little experimental evidence as to the effect of methods of teaching upon the ability of the child to transfer the generalisations about language that he has been taught in grammar to his own writing. There are, however, experiments in other fields of learning which seem to suggest that methods can affect transferability. Herbert Woodrow (1927) conducted an experiment in which he tested the transference of rules about memorising upon the ability to memorise poetry. He found that those students that had received training in those rules were able to memorise poetry more quickly than those who had not. He concludes as follows:

'In short, the experiment shows that in a case where one kind of drilling - undirected drill - produces amounts of transference which are somtimes positive and sometimes negative, but always small, another kind of training with the same drill may result in transference, the effects of which are uniformly large and positive.'

Experimental evidence by Ruediger (1908) suggested the same conclusion. Theoretical Psychology, according to Pulliam (1931), also corroborates this contention. He quotes Judd (1915) as follows:

'The first and most striking fact that is drawn from school experience is that one and the same subject matter may be employed with one and the same student with wholly different effects according to the mode of presentation. If the lesson is presented in one fashion it will produce a very large transfer, whereas if it is presented in an entirely different fashion, it will be utterly barren of results for other phases of mental life. ... Formalism and lack of transfer turn out to be, not characteristics of subjects of instruction, but rather products of the mode of instruction in these subjects.'

Bertram Evans (1959/67) ascribes the failure of grammar to affect the child's writing ability to the method used in teaching the subject. He says that

'either grammatical knowledge really has little connection with problems of writing, or it has latent bearings which our methods of teaching have failed to exploit and which our students have therefore failed to translate into practice. I take the latter view.'

(p. 113)

The following are some of the main criteria by which the teaching of grammar may be judged from a point of view of fostering transfer of learning:

(a) Whether the grammar is specifically related to the teaching of writing skills, in particular here, correctness.

(b) Whether the child sees the reason for the correction.

(c) Whether there is sufficient practice in applying the rules.

(a) In connection with the first of these criteria, i.e. whether grammar is taught in direct relation to writing, one finds that this query is raised time and again by various writers. Pulliam (1931), for example, says:

'The degree to which teaching consciously aims at the application of the formal rules to the correction of English expression might greatly influence the degree of transfer.'

(p. 654)

A more recent writer, Evans (1959/67), raises the same issue:

> 'My conclusion is that grammar has failed to do what, at best, it can do because our methods have not been designed to establish and maintain a sufficient connection between grammatical knowledge and practice in writing.'
>
> (p. 113)

(b) A further essential is that the child must see the reason for following a 'correct' rule. This means that the 'errors' he is called upon to correct must be true errors, based on modern usage, and not pedantic strictures having no relation to the child's own language. Furthermore, the way in which the teacher approaches the child when correcting him will influence his susceptibility to improvement. He must remember at all times that language is an integral part of the child's personality and home background: attack a child's language and you attack the child and his family. This problem was outlined in an article I published in 1972:

> 'This is even more the case today, where the children we teach do not aspire to adulthood, but are, on the contrary, very much aware of their difference from adults - they have their own type of clothes (whereas previously the young boy would look forward to wearing long trousers "like his dad"); their own music; their own language; all of which facts the advertisers have partly created and partly played upon. The situation today is, then, much more touchy than before.'
>
> (p. 245)

The teacher must make it clear that, while much of the language of the child is acceptable in certain contexts, there are certain items that would be inappropriate - and an awareness of this is vital for his future. Thus, rather than trying to eliminate a vocabulary item which is very much part of hissystem and his everyday life, one adds to his vocabulary item a status label (i.e. 'informal') together with a new item with a different (i.e. 'formal') status label. In this way the child does not feel that he (through his language) is being attacked, but merely being helped to have a further mode of expression added to his existing repertoire. The child will, under these circumstances, be more prepared to listen to and apply such 'corrections', since he can see the value of knowing and using the rules - they help him to communicate in formal situations. If, however, the teachers proceeds to impose a blanket ban on anything informal or 'slangy', he will simply strengthen the barrier dividing adults and youth, driving the youth

further in upon themselves, resulting in greater emphasis being placed on their own, slangy, informal colloquialisms.

(c) The child must also be given sufficient practice in applying the rules. Teachers cannot merely refer to the rule and then expect the child to go ahead and apply it at all times of his own accord. The child must not merely have a conscious, intellectual knowledge about competence, but must be helped to reach a stage of attaining also an automatic command of the 'correct forms'. That is, the rules must become part of his own, intuitive competence in addition to his having a conscious knowledge them which serves as a means of checking his own usage.

Fries (1926) puts it thus:

> 'Just as a child can be said to have learned to walk only when the act of balancing and placing his feet in steps have become unconscious processes, so he has really learned the language only when the grammatical forms of that language have become habit.'
>
> (p. 124)

The only way to achieve this is by giving the child enough practice in using the rules he has been taught. Brian Tiffen (1969/73), in his book, A Language in Common, puts it rather well:

> '... language mastery is a skill. It involves acquiring a new and complex set of behaviour skills. In order to acquire these habits a large amount of repetition is necessary. Frequent and short practice of the items to be learnt is both a saving in time and a means of ensuring that the pupils achieve automatic control of the structures of the language.'
>
> (p. 20)

The evidence cited in this section (3.2.5), then, suggests that learning traditional school grammar did not seem to have much effect upon a child's writing ability. However, it has been argued above that there are a number of queries concerning the experiments based on traditional grammar that need to be considered first before one concludes definitely that there is no correlation between learning traditional grammar and learning to write well. Furthermore, there are some recent experiments which suggest that, whether or not traditional grammar can be used to achieve this aim, TG may very well be able to fulfil this role, along with the teaching of literature, practice in speaking, etc. To abandon the teaching of grammar at this stage of our knowledge about its

transferability in the development of writing ability is nothing less than being governed by one's professional prejudices - which, it has to be admitted, is an extremely irresponsible attitude to adopt.

Thus, for the present, one can continue to teach grammar with a fairly strong conviction that it can help the child to improve the specifically linguistic aspects of his writing ability. One can proceed in the belief that, by teaching the child about his language, one can develop those linguistic resources he already possesses, add new knowledge and correct any faulty knowledge. In other words, the 'rules' one teaches him will eventually become internalised. It has been argued here that grammar is only one of the means of achieving this. It might be added at this stage that, even if it could be proven either that teaching grammar does not achieve this or that other means can achieve it more effectively, grammar would still have its part to play: by teaching the child about his language, one is giving him conscious knowledge, and this alone can be of assistance to the child. The point is that the ideal is not only for him to come to follow new or amended rules automatically but also to know the rules consciously, so that in time of doubt he can check up on what he has written. And this second aspect can be achieved only by the teaching of grammar. Thus Paul Roberts says of his book, English Syntax (1964):

> 'The study should be of some service to the student who wishes to improve his writing. It won't automatically make him write better. No grammar can do that. But it will explain the structures on which conventions of punctuation are based and the faults in sentence-construction to which young writers are prone. A student motivated to improve his writing will find a conscious understanding of the syntax an obvious help. For many students it is an indispensable one.'
>
> (p. 404)

Cross (1921), many years earlier, put it thus:

> 'It gives him the freedom of expression which comes from knowing that he is speaking in accordance with the customary usage of refined and educated people. Grammar also gives the speaker or writer the power to look back over a sentence after it has been uttered and judged whether it is in acceptable form or not.'
>
> (pp. 442-3)

3.2.6 From the improvement of the productive skills, we turn now to the question of grammar's role in the improvement of the interpretative skills. Here there are two basic skills involved:

(a) Comprehension skills - the ability to understand the content of a passage.

(b) Critical skills - the ability to appreciate the style of a passage.

These two skills are, of course, closely linked in practice - it is often difficult to separate meaning from style. Thus, for example, when appreciating literature, one makes use not only of one's critical skills but also one's comprehension skills. For the purposes of discussion, however, it is permissble to separate them.

(a) The first question, then, is whether knowledge about language can contribute to a child's ability to interpret the meaning of a text. The main requirement, obviously, is that the child must have a well-developed grammatical (as opposed to stylistic) competence. Now, if, as has been suggested in the previous section, grammar can both develop the child's existing grammatical competence and add to what he already possesses, then it must be accepted that grammar also has a role to play in developing interpretative ability. In other words, if the rules he has been taught in conjunction with his own writing eventually become an intrinsic part of his grammatical competence, or at any rate help him to realise in practice the rules he already possessed intuitively, then this knowledge will surely be of assistance to him when he sets about interpreting someone else's writing - he simply uses the rules 'in reverse', proceeding now from sound (or writing) via structure to meaning instead of from meaning via structure to sound (or writing).

It was, however, mentioned in the previous section that considerable value can also be derived from the fact that the child has at his disposal not only intuitive knowledge (developed partially through conscious knowledge) but also the conscious knowledge itself. The question arises as to whether this conscious knowledge is also useful when interpreting someone else's writing.

Chatman (1956-7) points out that conscious knowledge about how language works can help the child cope with problems arising from certain kinds of deficiencies he may have in his competence - not by dealing with each of the individual deficiencies in turn, but by providing him with a

general means of overcoming such deficiencies whenever they arise. In other words, there can be a general transfer of knowledge to all particular occurrences of these problems. He writes thus:

> '... it isn't the unusual words that cause the trouble. Even lazy students can be expected to look up "incarnadine" and "multitudinous" if threatened with quizzes. The real danger lies with the relatively simple words that are known in one - but the wrong - definition. Not only doesn't the student understand the word, but far worse, he doesn't even know that he doesn't understand it. And the astonishment and disbelief in his eyes when you tell him that words often have more than one meaning!'
>
> (p. 501)

He gives, by way of example, the word 'virtues' to mean 'angelic host', as in the following:

> 'From this descent
> Celestial virtues rising will appear
> More glorious than from no fall.'

The way to overcome this general problem is not to try to give him all the possible meanings of all words - an impossible task - but to make him aware of the concept of polysemy by means of selected examples and exercises. In this way the child can come to realise what Chatman calls 'the perniciousness of taking the first meaning that comes to mind'. He aptly describes the aim of the exercise as 'sensitising students to a higher degree of semantic awareness'.

This, then, is one way in which conscious linguistic knowledge on the lexical level can assist with intepretation. Whereas this claim might be easy to accept, the use of grammatical knowledge - intuitive or conscious - on the syntactic level is not always acknowledged by literary critics. Gleason (1965) puts it thus:

> '... grammatical problems are present in all literary pieces commonly read in schools, and acute in some. Writers are no less likely to use a construction unfamiliar to a high school student than they are to use a word he will not know. Other things being equal, the strange construction is more of a problem, since we do not have the same flexibility in grammar as in vocabulary.'
>
> (p. 470)

It is obvious, once again, that the greater the child's intuitive syntactic resources, the greater his ability to read sensibly. Thus, if knowledge about syntax develops these resources, then grammar has a use at this level of interpretation as well. A.A. Evans (1953), however,

feels that conscious knowledge is also essential:

> 'It is through hearing good speech and through intelligent and critical reading that one grasps and comprehends the sentence with all its subtle variations and, through these variations, the intention of the speaker or writer. Nevertheless, a familiarity with and a training in sentence-structure, built up through the simple sentence and through sentences of simple or loose structure is of great help in reading, particularly in the grasp of the involved complex or compound-complex sentence.'

This syntactic knowledge is particularly useful when the child is trying to grapple with older authors, to whom the child frequently takes an extreme dislike because he cannot comprehend what he is reading -, or, usually, being made to read. It is normally recognised that the child experiences a lexical problem here - archaic words occur, or words whose meanings have changed or multiplied - but, once again, the fact that he also experiences syntactic problems is not always acknowledged. Gleason (1965) suggests that a good set of annotated notes would help, but 'only in a small way, since disjointed notes are not an efficient device for handling anything as systematic as fundamental grammatical patterns' (p. 478). Michael Grady (1968) describes an experiment which he once performed on a class of slow-learners. Before teaching them Julius Caesar he drilled them in sentence patterns. Then, when they came to studying the book, he found he was 'able to assist students to "understand" Shakespeare - to decode him - by encouraging them to trace out the normal word order patterns from inverted, convoluted, and initially confusing syntax' (p. 875). The same would apply to teaching older poetry - e.g. Milton's 'On His Blindness':

> When I consider how my light is spent
> Ere half my days in this dark world and wide,
> And that one talent, which is death to hide,
> Lodged with me useless, though my soul more bent
> To serve my Maker, and present
> My true account, lest He, returning, chide;
> 'Doth God exact day-labour, light denied ?'
> I fondly ask. ....

Children frequently find this part of Milton's sonnet baffling from a mere meaning point of view. The reason is that the syntax is long, inverted and involved. If, however, it is pointed out that the sentence is constructed as follows, half their problems disappear:

1.	I fondly ask	:	Main Clause
2.	'Doth God exact ...'	:	Subordinate Noun Clause, object of 'ask' in the Main Clause
3.	The rest	:	Subordinate Clauses, mainly dealing with the circumstances that led him to ask these questions

The value of syntax is not, however, restricted only to understanding older authors; it is also sometimes necessary to use it in understanding more recent authors - e.g. Hopkins, who frequently inverts word orders and makes words function as 'parts of speech' that are not common to those words. When one comes across the poems of e.e. cummings (e.g. 'Anyone lived in a pretty how town'), syntactical knowledge is a sine qua non. Sallie Isaacs (1968) has this to say about the matter:

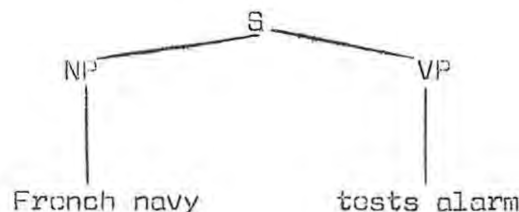
> 'In fact, grammar is essential in unlocking the meaning of this particular poem. As we use linguistics to unlock what might seem the juxtaposition of nothing by nothing, we see that Cummings' violence to language is indeed organized, and razor-sharp in meaning. Although a first reading does arouse some emotion and provide some clue to meaning, a close observation of grammatical manouvering allows deeper understanding and appreciation.'
>
> (p. 48)

Nor is the value of syntax limited only to reading literature - language from everyday life often requires a knowledge of sentence-structure in order to be understood fully. A child may read the following headline in a newspaper:

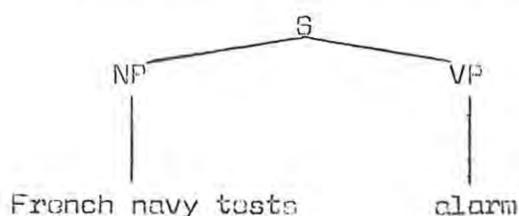
FRENCH NAVY TESTS ALARM

A knowledge of syntax will not only make him more alert to ambiguities of this kind but also assist him to unravel the ambiguities. Thus he would be able to see clearly the two possible structures - and therefore the two possible meanings - by making a phrase-structure analysis:

(1)



(2)



Syntactic knowledge would also assist in increasing the child's sensitivity to what Jacobs (1971) calls 'significant, possibly crucial semantic distinctions which may have been exploited or glossed over by writers, political and apolitical' (p. 482). He gives the following sentence as an example:

> This can be arranged.

He comments on the deliberate use of the passive by the politician who uttered this sentence. If he was unsure as to whether he could arrange it he would avoid saying:

> Someone can arrange this.

because the word 'Someone' might provoke a question as to this someone's identity. Even if he turned it into the passive -

> This can be arranged by someone -

he would not have overcome his problem. Thus he might have been led to make use of the transformational rule which allows one to delete the Subject-NP in a passive construction. To discover these underlying motives, a knowledge of syntax is an immense, if not essential, aid.

It would seem, therefore, that syntactic knowledge is of value to the child in discovering the meaning of a passage of writing. If one examines the examples above, one sees that one is using at least three aspects of syntactic knowledge:

(i) Form-class identification - as seen in the analysis of Cummings' 'Anyone lived in a pretty how town'. Here it is obvious that one needs to re-adjust the normal classification of words in order to understand the poem. This is not, however, always so obvious, and an ledge and awareness of the form-classes could lead to misunderstanding. Chatman (1956-7) points out that a lack of conscious knowledge about this aspect of syntax leads students to 'take the path of least resistance: they only know how to identify a word's structure in terms of its most frequent assignment, and are reluctant to analyse the specific syntactic demands which the environment makes upon it'. He cites the following lines from Arnold's 'Dover Beach' by way of example:

> The sea of Faith
> Was once, too, at the full and round earth's shore
> Lay like the folds of a bright girdle furled.

He points out how every student in his class mistook 'round' for an adjective, since the word 'round' occurs more often as an adjective than

as a preposition. Thus a misreading occurred among these students. A knowledge of form-classes, however, can be of considerable assistance in trying to prevent this. This knowledge, then, is not only useful when writers deviate widely from the norm, but even where they follow the conventions of the language.

(ii) Word order: It is sometimes necessary to trace out the writer's syntax, for example, where the subject is in the object-position and the object occurs first. The reader needs to rearrange the syntax in 'normal' order to discover the meaning. It was this kind of information in particular that Grady found so useful in teaching Julius Caesar to his slow-learning pupils.

(iii) Clauses: Evans (1953) points out how knowledge of clauses can be useful where there are non-simple sentences:

> 'The pupil acquires a skill, of which he may hardly be aware, of holding in abeyance in his attention a sequence of phrases and subordinate clauses (some possibly co-ordinate with each other) with all their implications, the significance of each one being refined or deepened by its juxtaposition to other clauses, or its meaning modified by a parenthesis, until he comes to the main clause upon which the whole sentence depends, to be followed perhaps by further subordinate or co-ordinate clauses.'

By helping him to understand the way sentences are constructed one can help him to unravel such passages as the first sentence of Milton's 'On His Blindness' or the self-embedded constructions that are so typical of Henry James's writing. This analytic process will need to be done consciously at first in order that the child may acquire an understanding of the ways in which sentences may be combined. Eventually, after considerable practice, he will proceed to understand the sentences semi-intuitively in the way described above, But he always has the conscious syntactic knowledge to fall back on if he encounters problems.

Thus, the child will find a conscious knowledge about words and sentences useful when reading both 'normal' and 'deviant' passages.

(b) We move now from comprehension to stylistic appreciation and ask whether grammar has a role to play here too or not. It was mentioned earlier (3.2.5) that there seems to be a case for arguing that grammar may have a beneficial effect upon a child's ability to produce

grammatical sentences, both by incorporating the knowledge he has acquired into his intuitive grammatical competence and by providing him with information which is useful in its conscious form as well. In (a) above it was argued that, if this is so, then the 'improvement' in grammatical competence gained through learning grammar in relation to one's own writing will be a valuable asset in interpreting that of someone else, as one is now simply using one's competence 'in reverse'. This last section contended, furthermore, that the knowledge on the conscious level remained useful also when interpreting. Then, the use of all this to interpret has the effect of further developing the grammatical competence, which in turn improves the ability both to write grammatically and to understand someone else's writing.

Now, if this is all true, then, from one point of view, it can be argued that grammar can indirectly affect one's ability to appreciate the style of a piece of writing - after all, before one can begin to appreciate the style of the piece, one has to be able to interpret its meaning. Chatman (1956-7), speaking of literary appreciation in particular, maintains that many students never learn to read the 'masterpieces of our language with even elementary comprehension'. He continues thus:

> 'One reason for their failure is that the basic skill of interpretation is all too easily assumed by the instructor, whose anxiety is to prove the value of the literature or whose scholarly interests may insulate him from the beginner's major problems. The kind of English which we want our students to learn to read differs strikingly from the kind they are used to. For the first time, they must try to make plain sense out of a dialect which is infinitely more subtle in lexical distinction and more complex in structure than any they have ever known ...'

The same applies, to a lesser extent, to the understanding of all writing. By comparison with speech, writing is a foreign medium to the child. Thus it can be argued that, if this initial stage of comprehension is so crucial and so often neglected, then everything must be done to ensure an improvement in this field. From this point of view, then, grammar does have a role to play in stylistic appreciation.

The question which follows from this is whether grammar has a role to play specifically as regards the style of a passage - as regards how it is said rather than what is said. It was suggested in 3.2.5 that the stylistic competence is developed along with the grammatical competence when grammar is taught in connection with composition. If this is so, then it can be argued that this improved stylistic competence will be available to the child from a receptive point of view as well - in the

same way that grammatical competence was.

The question which remains, however, is whether the conscious knowledge of grammar (communicative competence) is valuable as conscious knowledge in developing the child's ability to appreciate the style of a passage. The answer can perhaps be found in the fact that what we want the child to achieve is not only an increased intuitive response to the style of a piece, but also to be able to communicate publicly what his response is. His subjective response must be able to be expressed and checked objectively against the responses of others. At this stage it is necessary to distinguish between appreciating the style of 'literature' as opposed to 'non-literature'. In the case of the latter, we are dealing with the style of advertising, propaganda, science, etc. and the aim is not to appreciate or to evaluate the piece of writing as such, but to understand the various styles generally. This could be called 'stylistics', and is basically a linguistic matter - one is trying to discover what sort of structures are typically used in certain contexts. With literature, on the other hand, one wants the child not only to be able to understand literary style as such but to evaluate it and also to appreciate it in relation to particlar literary artefacts. This could be called 'literary criticism', which David Lodge (1966) defines as the 'attempt to define the meaning and value of literary artefacts by relating subjective response to objective text, always pursuing exhaustiveness of explication and unanimity of judgment, but conscious that these goals are unattainable'. Here comments on the style, in other words, are a means to an end - a way of publicly evaluating the piece of literature.

Whatever the type of writing, however, the basic aim is similar: to enable the child to rationalise intuitive, subjective responses. It follows from this that a knowledge of the kinds of linguistic options open to writers and the types of contexts in which they are typically used (i.e. a knowledge of communicative competence) will assist the child to talk about a piece of writing from a stylistic point of view. It is only by examining the objective texts - the linguistic facts - that one can compare one's views with those of other people and, in the case of literature, with some objective standard of evaluation.

This view is usually accepted - tacitly, at any rate - at the lexical level. The need to know something about the connotative power of words, about synonymy, and so on - all this is taken for granted as a sine qua non for stylistic analysis (i.e. stylistics and literary criticism).

However, when it comes to the syntactic level, the semantics of choice are not always explored. This is perhaps because it is only in recent years that a grammar based on the idea of 'options' (TG) has emerged. But, as regards literature, there is possibly a further reason: syntactic analysis of, for example, a poem, is regarded by some as almost heretical. It smacks of a cold, rational approach, as opposed to a personal, intuitive response to literature. What these critics forget is that what is advocated is not that the personal response be ignored or circumvented, but that the personal be followed by a public reaction. If one wants to achieve this second stage, it is necessary, as Ohman (1969b) puts it, to 'think of literature as sentences' whether we like it or not. Literature may be 'language in a special condition', as Steiner (1971) calls it, but it is nevertheless language, and 'language' (in this sense) consists of sentences.

The general aim, then, is to enable the child to realise that, 'since the writer picks and chooses among the options presented to him by the language, the critic may gain insight into the writer or the work or both by discovering the patterns in the linguistic choices that the writer, consciously or unconsciously, has made (Lester: 1969, p. 366). Only in this way can one rationalise one's intuitions in a communicative manner. And to do this, one requires a conscious knowledge of the communicative competence of the language. There are two types of linguistic 'choices' that the writers makes and that the critic needs to note:

(1) Firstly, choices within the framework of the norm. This refers to the exploitation of the possibilities offered by the grammar for particular purposes. Using one's conscious knowledge of syntax, one tries to discover which options the writer chose and why. Some examples at this juncture might be useful to illustrate this claim:

(i) A passage from Joseph Conrad's Youth:

> It lasted all down the North Sea, all down Channel; and it lasted till we were three hundred miles or so to the westward of the Lizards: then the wind rose to the sou-west and began to pipe up. In two days it blew a gale. The Judea hove to, wallowed on the Atlantic like an old candle-box.
>
> . . . .
>
> ... She tossed, she pitched, she stood on her head, she sat on her tail, she rolled, she groaned, and we had to hold on while on deck and cling to our bunks when below, in a constant effort of body and worry of mind.
>
> . . . .
>
> ... And there is somewhere in me the thought: this is the

> deuce of an adventure - something you read about; and it is my first voyage as a second mate - and I am only twenty - and here I am lasting it out as well as any of these men, and keeping my chaps up to the mark. I was pleased. I would not have given up the experience for worlds. I had moments of exultation.

Here a knowledge of syntax is useful in describing why different parts make different impressions on us: the second section suggests a tremendous event, where everything happened at once; it conveys an impression of power, fear, adventure. The reason is that the writer has chosen to combine a large number of sentences, mainly by co-ordination, which suggests a rapid tumbling of events. By analysing this piece syntactically one is able to convey why one intuitively finds this piece exciting. The end part of the third section above is also impressive- we feel Marlowe's sense of excitement, joy, exultation. If we ask why, we realise that this is largely because here the author has opted for a series of short, sharp simple sentences which emphasise his emotions.

(ii) An advertisement from Vogue (July 1968):

Its inspiration is the mysterious allure of the Oriental woman.
Its symbol is the Yang, man-sun and the Yin, woman-moon, joined in perfect love.
Its fragrance blends the sacred and the profane, the gentle and the passionate.
Beguilingly innocent, yet mysteriously provocative.
Its name is Masumi, a classic new French perfume unmistakably touched with greatness.

[Illustration]

a new word in the language of love MASUMI de COTY

Made in France. Inspired by the east.

In order to comment sensibly on the style of this advertisement, one needs a metalanguage which, amongst other things, enables one to discuss the syntax of the advertisement. One needs to note that all the sentences are simple, active statements. There are no questions, no exhortatory imperatives. The aim of the advertisement is to produce the effect of mystery, etc. on the highbrow Vogue reader, not to tell the reader that she ought to buy the product or pose questions as to why she should buy it. This contrasts with the following extract from an advertisement for HELENA SKIN TONIC (Personality):

Hurry!

FOR A LIMITED PERIOD ONLY!

In keeping with their aim, the advertisers of Masumi have, furthermore, chosen simple verbal clusters – except for 'blends' they are all forms of BE, so that that 'atmospheric' nature of the nouns and verbs may be given some basis of emphatic fact. Thus, without directly telling the reader that these are the qualities of the product, the advertisement has the appearance of merely quietly stating unmistakable facts. Nor are the nominal clusters very complex – in most cases, they have only one modifier to the left of the noun-head. Furthermore, the advertisers have taken trouble to achieve a syntactic balance. Just as the lines are balanced against each other, so are certain nominal and adjectival clusters balanced against each other: 'Yang ... woman-moon'; 'sacred'-'profane'; 'gentle'-'passionate'; and the balancing of the two groups formed by these antithetical pairs; plus the balance in line 5. The paradoxical nature of the perfume is thus stressed. Finally, the choice of 'Its' in the subject adds to the suspense atmosphere.

The sentence-structure of the advertisement can thus be shown to be appropriate to the terseness and understatement which characterises the whole advertisement. The attitude is that the advertiser knows that the product is good, so there is no need to shout it from the roof-tops. The general tone is at 'lowkey', indicating a refusal to rhapsodise about the product. Furthermore, the main aim is the 'mood appeal' – thus any kind of brash sales-talk is strictly avoided.

(2) The second kind of 'choice' a writer makes is to deviate from the norm. But in order to understand fully what the deviation is and why it has been made, one needs to know what the norm is in the first place. Furthermore, one needs a conscious knowledge of syntax to be able to comment on the patterns of deviations, since these are what Lieberman (1969) calls 'consistent deviations in terms of grammatical rules'. Below are two examples:

(i) NO MORE HIROSHIMAS : D.J. Enright (first two stanzas)

The roughly estimated ones, who do notsort well with our common phrases,
Who are by no means eating roots of dandelion, or pushing up the daisies.

The more or less anonymous, to whom no human idiom can apply,
Who neither passed away, or on,
nor went before, nor vanished on a sigh.

When one reads these stanzas one becomes intuitively aware that there is something 'wrong' with the syntax. However, it is only by using one's conscious knowledge of syntax that one is able to understand exactly how the sentences deviate, and it is only by knowing this that one can decide why they deviate. A clause analysis of the first stanza would reveal the following adjectival clauses:

(1) who do not sort well with our common phrases
(2) who are by no means eating roots of dandelion
(3) or [who are by no means] pushing up the daisies

This leaves only the NP 'The roughly estimated ones', which is the subject of an incomplete main clause. Similarly, in the second stanza there is a verbless main 'clause' – 'The more or less anonymous'. We are led to ask why the writer should have chosen to deviate in this way. The answer seems to lie in his inability to find a verb to describe the awe-ful experience of the people of Hiroshima. He is, as he suggests when he rejects various conventional verb phrases, admitting that he is 'speechless' when it comes to describing their experience. The very syntax of the poem conveys to meaning of the poem.

(ii) BELFAST '71 : A schoolboy aged 17
Fragments of life all blasted away.
Sounds and sights of war.
"You children can't go out and play,
that's not an order – it's a law."

This little poem is trying to convey the 'broken' lives of the inhabitants of Belfast. Thus the first two sentences are incomplete – both lack predicate verb phrases. Once again, only a proper knowledge of syntax can enable one to see this clearly.

In these and many other ways, then, grammar can be of use in aiding the child in his development towards greater stylistic insight. What is thus taught for liberal reasons can help the child both to express himself more effectively (grammatically and stylistically) and to understand and appreciate the utterances of other people.

CHAPTER 1V

The Context

In the previous chapter the various aims of teaching grammar were discussed, and it was concluded that there is a good case for including grammar in the English curriculum on the grounds that it can serve valuable pragmatic and liberal aims. This Thesis is concerned primarily with the contents and approach of a school textbook that can best fulfil those aims. No textbook, however, operates in a vacuum - if one wants it to succeed one has to take into account not only the aims but also the context in which it is to be used. This chapter, then, will deal with certain aspects of the current educational context that have a direct bearing upon the contents of the textbook:

1. The educational climate (and its effect on syllabuses and examinations).
2. The training and qualifications of teachers.

4.1 The Educational Climate

The new English Higher Grade Syllabuses, compiled in 1973, must be seen in the light of current educational theories, because the latter influence the content of the syllabus and its implementation. Consequently any suggested changes will either have to fit in with these theories, or prove that they are so valuable that they can defy them, or prove that the theories themselves are wrong. At the same time, however, it must be borne in mind that this Thesis is not an 'educational' one; thus any discussion of pedagogical theories will be only on a superficial plane and only with regard to those aspects directly relevant to the topic of the Thesis.

4.1.1 What is particularly relevant is the view of education which is currently popular in Great Britain among many educationists. Although South Africa is regarded as being about a decade behind Britain in educational thought, it is a fact that many aspects of the British approach are already gradually infiltrating our educational system: there are a number of supports in the schools and university education departments; and the influence is also apparent in the new syllabuses (although the syllabus-compilers would probably not subscribe to all of the tenets and implications of the philosophy concerned). Thus, as this approach

becomes more and more accepted, either in its original form or with South African modifications, it will increasingly influence future discussions about the syllabus. It is therefore of vital importance that this trend in educational thought be examined in a Thesis of this nature.

The approach referred to above is the so-called 'child-centred' approach to education, a liberal view which is being documented and propagated by an increasing number of British educationists. It is true that there are definite signs of a counter-campaign, particularly on the part of a conservative group who have published their misgivings in a series of Black Papers; nevertheless, it is still the liberals who hold the sway and who are likely to do so for at least the foreseeable future.

In the traditional view of education, there are at least two people involved - the child and the adult. The aim of the exercise is to lead (educere) the child out of his childhood and into adulthood. 'Adulthood' in its ideal form entails adhering to a certain code accepted by society; the adult is expected to be an individual, but nevertheless to display certain approved characteristics - e.g. independence, reliability, responsibility, some cultural knowledge, etc. By contrast, the pedocentric view starts not with society but with the child: the child must be left to become what he wants to become, and not what we want him to become. It is thus argued that the child must not be imposed upon in any way - he must be left to make his own decisions; develop his individual talents and characteristics; arrive at his own philosophy of life and his own morality.

This view is applied in varying degrees according to the type of school. At one extreme are the left-wing 'de-school' and 'free-school' movements, both of which, like Summerhill, propound more and more freedom for the child. At the other extreme are the old public schools and the remaining grammar schools, which tend to be more traditional in their approach to these matters. In between are the comprehensive schools which hover between the two extremes, some trying to maintain a judicious balance between the two, others veering to the left either by design or in a state of confusion.

What is particularly relevant to this Thesis is the effect of this ideology on two aspects of education - the curriculum and the methods of teaching.

As regards the effect on the *content* of the curriculum, the child-centred approach naturally takes the individual child rather than the subject-matter as the starting-point. It is the child's *individual* development which is the focal point of education. Thus what is taught is determined not so much by what the adults feels the child *ought* to know but by what the child *wants* to know, what he regards as 'relevant' to his own needs and his own particular world at that particular stage of his development. Furthermore, with the child as the starting-point, it is argued that we need to foster the development of the *whole* child - emotional, social and intellectual - and not merely the intellectual side, as was the case, claim the liberals, with the oldur, subject-orinetated approach to education.

The content of the curriculum is also influenced by the *methods* advocated for presenting the content of the curriculum. Basically, it is felt that the teacher must avoid imposing his own views in his subject upon the child. It follows thus that any approach which stresses teacher-direction or formal systematic class teaching is anathema to the child-centred adherent. Froome (1975) puts it thus:

> 'There has been such emotional condemnation of didactic methods that any show of teacher-direction and inculcation of facts is condemned as authoritarian.'
>
> (p. 11)

The traditional idea of the teacher as master of his subject, imparting in true Mr Chipps style his pearls of wisdom to the intellectual underlings entrusted to his care, is dying rapidly in many British schools. The teacher has been made to step down from his intellectual and authoritarian dais and assume instead the guise of a leader of a band of equals. He is now merely a catalyst in the pupil's progress along the path of 'self-discovery' (i.e. discovering for himself). The teacher simply assists the child's development by motivating him, setting him tasks and assignments, being at hand to praise and to organise 'discussion' lessons.

If one looks at the content and methods of the *English* curriculum in particular, one can see the above ideas very evident. Dixon (1967/69), in a book significantly entitled *Growth Through English*, points out that in the past there were two main aims for teaching English: firstly, the imparting of knowledge (handing down our cultural heritage); secondly, the developing of skills (in order to be able to communicate more effectively). Today, continues Dixon, a third aim has ousted these two,

viz. the fostering of personal growth (the development of the child as an intellectual, emotional and social being). Thus it is frequently the practice in British high schools for English not to be taught as a separate subject in the first two or three years. English is combined with subjects such as History and Geography under the general heading of the 'Humanities'. This inter-disciplinary approach is based on a belief that this is how the child sees the world - as a coherent whole, not as discrete sections labelled 'English', 'History', and so on. The child, as we can see, is taken as the starting-point. Professor G.H. Bantock, of the University of Leicester, sums up the <u>raison d'être</u> of this approach as follows:

> 'Subject divisions are often dismissed as "artificial" largely on the grounds that everyday living constantly involves the crossing and re-crossing of subject boundaries and "life as real as the home or the playground" is the object of our endeavour.'
>
> (1975, p. 16)

Taking into account the nature of traditional school grammar, it is clear that in this inter-disiplinary approach grammar as such is not likely to play a significant role. The main emphasis will fall on projects (historical, geographical, literary) which involve writing and reading, leaving no room for a separate discipline like grammar.

In the higher standards, where English <u>is</u> timetabled as a distinct subject, the approach is <u>intra</u>-disciplinary: except where pupils are preparing for a particular external examination, the approach currently in vogue is to teach composition, grammar and literature, as far as possible, as an integrated whole. The child's 'creative' self is taken as the starting-point, and thus emphasis is placed on the 'freer' and more exciting aspects of English. The English programme thus largely centres round such activities as drama, play readings, compilation of class newspapers and poetry anthologies, radio programmes, 'creative' writing and general oral discussions. The result is that there is little or no room for such matters as expository writing, formal grammar, usage. These might not always be neglected, but they are often thrust into the background and regarded as bitter pills which must be sweetened if they are to be consumed at all. Writing programmes place most stress on the child's free and creative expression of his individual feelings, with little attention being paid to 'correctness' or logicality. Similarly, the aim of the literature lesson is that the child must 'experience' the work so that he may 'grow' in his awareness of, and his sensitivity to,

his world; he is seldom called upon to rationalise his reponse to the work, as this is felt to detract from his personal experience. Since the idea of a separate grammar lesson does not fit in with the integrated approach and since the 'free' approach to literature and composition discourages a great deal of attention to grammar even on an incidental basis, it is clear that grammar has no definite role to play.

The 'discovery approach' to learning is a further reason for the absence of any kind of definite grammar programme. Dixon (1967/69) points out that any programme involving explicit knowledge about language would contradict the approach whereby the child gradually comes to discover things for himself during a series of 'activities' rather than having knowledge 'presented' to him (p. 11).

4.1.2 As was mentioned earlier, since South Africa lags behind Britain in educational thought, this educational philosophy, which is already being challenged strongly in Britain, is now only beginning to take root in the Republic. Nevertheless there are definite signs of the influence of this philosophy on the new English syllabuses in South Africa. Whether the designers of the syllabuses were motivated by this liberal educational philosophy, in part in in its entirety, or whether they were simply following the effects of the philosophy without subscribing to the philosophy itself, is a matter of debate. The main point that concerns us here is the fact that the influences are there.

This can be seen by comparing the 1963/9 syllabus for English Higher with the new one introduced in 1974 in the Cape. The following is the preamble to the earlier syllabus:

> 'The importance to the pupil of sound instruction in the mother-tongue cannot be over-estimated. His mother-tongue is his main means of communication with his fellow-men, and without it community life and civilazation (sic) would be impossible. It is the key to literature, the treasure-house of the wisdom, beauty and humour accumlated (sic) through the centuries by his race. It is the instrument by which men must carry on the activities of a democratic people, which demand intelligent participation in the social, the economic and every other sphere of public life. Full participation is possible only to such as develop the capacity to speak, read and write with understanding and fluency.
>
> 'Thus, for the fundamental purposes of civilized living, literary understanding and the democratic way of life, effective use of the mother-tongue is a vital necessity. It should be the central purpose of the language teacher's life to equip his pupils, as fully as he may, in the use of their own language. Indeed, the

> language of all teachers should be beyond reproach, and correct expression should be required of pupils at all times.'

The emphasis here is here is clearly on the two earlier aims mentioned by Dixon – the imparting of cultural knowledge and the development of linguistic skills. This can be contrasted with the 'General Aim' of the new syllabus (Appendix B):

> 'The general aim is to promote the pupil's intellectual, emotional and social development.
>
> 'This can be regarded as the end product of education as a whole, almost all subjects in the curriculum being directed towards it; it should be emphasised, however, that the relationship between a child's linguistic skill and his personal development is a unique one. It must, therefore, be recognized that the teacher of English is merely contributing to a process that begins in infancy and continues throughout life.'

It is thus stated categorically in the new syllabus that the 'teacher's task is not to be thought of in terms of providing a series of class-room exercises, but of creating opportunities for the extension and enrichment of experience'. The stress in all aspects of the syllabus is on the child's experience, his personal development, as the starting-point. Thus oral and written composition are given a very significant role, and in each case the emphasis is on activities, discussion and writing which are 'related to a wide range of the pupil's experience, including his imaginative and emotional experience'. The unitary approach is also advocated: the syllabus states that 'for convenience' sake the course is presented here under three headings, although in practice the work must be integrated'.

As regards the grammar section of the syllabus in particular, there is a vast difference between the new syllabus and the older one. Firstly, as regards the aims, one can see a shift in approach over the years. In the earlier (Senior Secondary) English Higher Syllabus the specific aims for English are stated as follows:

> '1. To train pupils to think clearly and logically.
> 2. To train them to speak logically, correctly and fluently.
> 3. To train them to write logically, correctly and fluently.
> 4. To give them an elementary insight into the structure of the language.
> 5. To train them to read intelligently – that is, to enable them to understand the written thoughts of others.
> 6. To introduce them, systematically, to the works and thoughts of great writers, with the aim, as they grow older, of training the imagination, developing the taste, and generally enriching their lives.'

Basically, the aims are to develop a literary sensibility, to train the child to read, speak, write and listen adequately, and to give him an understanding of how his language works. Insofar as these aims are applicable to the study of grammar in particular, one can say that the syllabus recognises both the liberal and the pragmatic aims.

The aims of the new syllabus may be summarised as follows:

1. 'To increase the pupil's capacity to observe, to discriminate, to see relationships, and to order his thoughts coherently'.
2. 'to help the pupil to understand himself and his own emotional emotional and moral responses'.
3. 'to extend, through his capacity to communicate with others, the pupil's mental and emotional world'.
4. 'to extend the pupil's intellectual, emotional and cultural experience'.
5. 'to train the pupil to express clearly and correctly and effectively what he observes, thinks and feels'.

(Junior Secondary Course)

Insofar as these general aims for English are applicable to the study of grammar as such, the important difference is that, whereas the old syllabus recognises both the pragmatic and the liberal aims, the 1973 syllabus accepts <u>only</u> the pragmatic aims. Although it could be argued that the inclusion of the liberal aim in the old syllabus was not fully recognised in all its implications or realised as fully as it could be, the fact that it was there meant that it allowed anyone who felt that this was an important aim to go ahead and pursue it to their heart's content. The new syllabus, on the other hand, states categorically that this aim is not a valid one. It might be noted in passing here that this contrasts with the new syllabus for <u>Afrikaans</u> Higher Grade, which includes the following as one of its aims:

> 'Inleiding in the kennis van and insig in die Afrikaanse taalleer, elementêre kennis can die struktuur van die taal en die funksionele middele wat daarop betrekking het.'

Furthermore, the pragmatic aims are not so much important as ends in themselves any more, but merely as minor means to a far more important aim - the development of the child as a individual person.

As regards the <u>contents</u> of the grammar in the syllabus, there has been a corresponding change in the new syllabus. With the rejection of the liberal aim even as a subsidiary one and the emphasis on the personal development of the child, there is no longer a separate section even labelled 'Language Study'. In the old syllabus, this covered comprehension, précis and formal grammar. The latter is described as follows:

1. Structure
   (a) The grammatical functions in their contexts of words, phrases and clauses. The study under this heading includes synthesis and the formal analysis of sentences into clauses.
   (b) Punctuation.
   (c) Tenses.
   (d) Subjunctive Mood.

2. Word Study
   (a) Parts of speech.
   (b) Prefixes, suffixes.
   (c) Vocabulary.

3. Usage

In the new syllabus there is a small sub-heading under 'Written English' in the Junior Secondary Syllabus which reads as follows: 'Note: Language Study'. In the Senior Secondary Syllabus, however, language study is simply mentioned in passing as a tail-end to the syllabus under the heading 'General Notes'. The details of what is to be taught are basically the same as in the old syllabus, but it is stressed in the new that grammar is to be taught only 'in action' – by ad hoc discussion in the context of the pupil's own writing and the appreciation of literature. For example, the Senior Syllabus states that pupils 'must be acquainted with the commoner forms of grammatical terminology (i.e. parts of speech), insofar as they are relevant to the discussion of their work. These must be treated in context and not as isolated exercises ...' The layout and tone of the syllabus, therefore, are of great significance as to what is to be taught and how it is to be taught.

Linked to the idea of teaching grammar mainly in relation to the pupil's own work is the new emphasis on synthesis of sentences as opposed to analysis. The gradual move in this direction can be seen by comparing the 1963, 1969 and 1973 syllabuses. In the first of these only analysis is required; in the 1969 syllabus both analysis and synthesis are included; while in the new syllabus it is only synthesis which is laid down – in fact, analysis is specifically rejected.

The examination as laid down in the 1973 syllabus confirms the new trend. Under the old dispensation there were three papers, both internally and externally:

1. Literature.
2. Composition.
3. Language.

The language paper usually contained a separate question on parts of speech, analysis and/or synthesis, vocabulary and other aspects of general language study. Sometimes these would also be examined contextually as part of the comprehension question. In the new syllabus, on the other hand, the (internal) examinations for Standards 6 - 9 are expected to contain questions on the more formal aspects of language study, but these are to be contextual questions only, i.e. not 'detached, isolated ... questions'. In the external Senior Certificate examination, formal grammar will not be examined at all. The examination requirements of the new syllabus are liable to have a strong feedback effect, emphasising the decline in status of grammar. The absence of formal grammar in the external examination will inevitably lead examination-conscious teaches' to cease teachingit and examining it internally. Even where it is still examined internally, if it is done contextually, this is not likely to arouse any interest in the study of language for its own sake. (It can be noted, once again, that this contrasts with the new syllabus for Afrikaans Higher, which stipulates that formal grammar will be examined both internally and externally.)

To sum up: it is clear from the new syllabuses that, despite the protestations to the contrary by the Department of Education in its Guide to teachers (Appendix D), grammar is today of considerably reduced importance. What little is taught, is to be done incidentally when the need arises; the separate grammar lesson is strictly and officially frowned upon. The new approach rejects categorically the teaching and examining of grammar as a study in its own right.

4.1.3 It is not, as was suggested at the beginning of 4.1, within the scope of this Thesis to argue the merits and demerits of the child-centred approach to education as such. What must be considered, however, is whether the assumptions of the child-centred theorists concerning the role of grammar are tenable or not. It must be accepted that, if grammar is to survive in schools in the next decade, it must be investigated whether or not it can live in a child-centred environment. Thus what needs to be corrected is not any fallacious arguments which might pertain to this pedocentric approach to education, but the erroneous

views of these educationist about the effect of this approach upon grammar in the school. If these can be cleared up, it can be contended that grammar does, and ought to, have a part to play in both the traditional and the child-centred approaches to education.

What has happened is that, in reacting to to past misdemeanours - real or mythical - some modernists have tended to swing the pendulum too far to the other extreme. There are at least two such extreme reactions, which have ironically led to contradictory solutions which have combined to produce a drastic dilemma in the new approach to English as exemplified in the new syllabus:

(1) Firstly, in the past, it is argued, there was little direct transfer from what was done in the grammar lesson to the child's own writing or his appreciation to the writing of others. Grammar lessons would involve such items as vocabulary and spelling lists, synonyms and antonyms, parts of speech and clause analysis. Rarely, however, would the teacher make the children use what had been taught, in follow-up writing or literary exercises. As Walsh (1965) put it:

> 'Some children spend the whole of their school career in attempting merely to master the grammatical terms, and there is no time left - nor has the teacher any inclination, nor, alas, does he always see the need - to put the grammatical terminology to use in a discussion of a child's or of an adult's writing.'
>
> (p. 182)

For example, the teacher would not arrange for his pupils to practise writing the simple and complex sentences they had been taught about in order to avoid 'verbless sentences' or 'run-on sentences', to acquire the ability to use a variety of sentence-structures and to choose the appropriate adjectives, verbs, adverbs, etc. from a number of possible synonyms, and so on. Nor would the teacher refer directly to the grammar taught in the grammar lesson when marking a child's composition; instead he would correct the error himself or write a vague 'G' or 'Gr' in the margin and leave it at that. During the literature lesson, too, no reference would be made to their knowledge of parts of speech and syntax to elucidate meaning and /or style.

In reaction to this 'separate development' approach, the new syllabus continually stresses the need to integrate the teaching of grammar with the child's own writing and his appreciation of literature. This is a

pleasing improvement from one point of view, since it will mean that grammar will be given more chance to succeed in helping to achieve the aims that have been claimed for it (see previous chapter). On the other hand, this view has led to a number of conclusions that are untenable and that actually defeat the very aim the view set out to achieve in the first place.

The basic view suggested in the new syllabus is that, in order to counteract the previous fragmentary and isolated approach, it is now advocated that all grammar teaching must be done incidentally rather than in specific grammar lessons. This approach cannot possibly work in practice. The child will never really understand the terms and concepts if they are taught ad hoc on different occasions; since the various terms are interrelated, unless there are definite grammar lessons in which these are first taught with illustrations, and then applied to the child's own writing and reading, he will not know what they really mean and therefore cannot possibly use them - one of the requirements for transfer mentioned in Chapter 111 was the intelligibility of the knowledge to be transferred. The preliminary grammar lesson is a sine qua non. This is, in fact, acknowledged in the Guide to teachers drawn up subsequent to the compilation of the new syllabus (Appendix D). For example, the Guide has the following to say about teaching parts of speech:

> 'To begin with, parts of speech will have to be taught - not by definition, but by the work each does (and/or the position it holds) in a sentence. Then will follow a period of consolidation during which different parts of speech are recognised by their function in passages selected from prescribed works or other reading material dealt with in class.'

It would seem that the Department had had second thoughts by this stage, since this is a far cry from the dogmatic injunction of the syllabus, which reads as follows:

> 'Many of the exercises relating to the study of the way in which language works can be carried out orally. It should not be undertaken or examined out of context, that is, through a series of detached, isolated exercises or questions.'
>
> (Junior Secondary Syllabus)

It can thus be argued that it is simply impossible to teach grammar by contextual and incidental means. It can also be argued that not only is it impossible, but that it is also undesirable, for at least two reasons. Firstly, the teaching of grammar is meant to prevent as well as to cure linguistic ailments. In order to do this one needs to teach the child

spelling, vocabulary and syntax that will prevent him from going wrong in the event of his using these items, and not merely to wait for him to go wrong first and then to teach him where he has gone wrong.

There is a second, and far more important, reason for calling the incidental approach undesirable, and that is that it will ruin both the composition and the literature lessons. We have already argued that the grammar will not be learnt properly; but it can also be seen that neither will composition and literature fare very well. Back in 1951 Blamires eloquently warned of the possible dangers of this approach for the teaching of literature:

> 'The attempt to combine too closely the study of English as an aesthetic study with English as a linguistic discipline can certainly have harmful results. Anyone who is acquainted with the present practice of our schools will surely vouch for the truth of this claim.
>
> 'Literature is rendered unattractive to generations of school-children, not because - as many of them later suggest - they have been taught appreciation, but because they have not been taught appreciation. Instead they have been taught something else - to read aloud, to paraphrase or write critical essays. All of these are, of course, admirable activities, yet most of them are tenuously related to the business of nourishing and encouraging the appreciation of literature.'
>
> (pp. 9-10)

If we include grammar here, we can see that, if the teacher is expected to teach, say, parts of speech in the context of literature, he will always be on the lookout for opportunities to do so. And when he finds an opportunity, he will have to stop the discussion of the poem, for example, and launch out into a lengthy description of the functions of nouns or the comparative degree of adverbs, and so on. The child is liable to lose interest in the lesson and gain very little in the way of literary appreciation - to say the least!

The same applies to the integration of grammar and composition. There will tend to be an over-emphasis on the language aspect of composition at the expense of originality of thought and feeling. If, instead, the grammar is taught in a separate grammar lesson and then applied during the composition lesson, the emphasis in this lesson then will be on the language as a means to an end - a vehicle for thought and emotion - and not on language as an object of study in itself. Furthermore, if one wants to use grammatical knowledge to correct an a child's errors, he must first be given the grammatical knowledge, otherwise he has to stop and teach all that before correcting the error. For example, if a child

tended to write 'verbless sentences' one cannot first spend three or four lessons teaching him about verbs and only then explain what was wrong with his work - by that time he has forgotten what he originally wrote; and, anyway, what does one do with the rest of the class in the meantime if they haven't made this error as well ? If instead the child were taught about verbs during the grammar lesson, one could simply refer the child to this knowledge in order to correct an error on the part of the child when it arises.

This does not mean that there must be no connection between grammar and literature and between grammar and composition - and, for that matter, between literature and composition. In fact, it is to the benefit of all three aspects that there should be a direct relation between them. The ideal way to achieve this, however, is not to integrate the three into one general kind of 'English' period, based on either writing or reading or both, but rather to have lessons which are basically either literature or composition or grammar but which cross-refer to each other in order to illuminate the particular lesson with which one might be concerned at the moment. For example, during a literature lesson, one might comment on a writer's use of simple sentences or his choice of adjectives. During a composition lesson, one might use a piece of literature as a model or as a means of inspiration, or one might comment on the child's over-use of a particular sentence-type. During a grammar lesson, one might use a poem or passages from prose to illustrate the use of adjectives or periodic sentences, or one might use a child's own piece of writing to illustrate a typical error. Each lesson, in other words, has one basic aim - the appreciation of literature, the improvement of writing skills, or the imparting of grammatical knowledge - and as such involves a basic kind of content, even though there may be cross-reference from one kind of lesson to another. Blamires (1951) also stresses that each lesson will have a certain spirit according to the basic purpose the teacher has in mind. Since he argues his case so well, it is necessary to quote him at some length:

> 'We ought to know ... in any given lesson whether we are aiming at an aesthetic experience, at the deeper understanding of language as the tool of thought or at the development of a technical equipment such as writing. We must determine whether our primary aim is that our pupils should leave at the end of the period having enjoyed an art, having investigated linguistic formulas or having acquired more mastery of a technique.
>
> 'There must be English lessons during which the atmosphere of the classroom is what it is during a good maths. lesson: technicalities of grammar, sentence-structure, scansion and

verse-forms are being explored and grappled with. These lessons are pervaded by an atmosphere of calculated efficiency. The joy of the pupils in such lessons springs from the sense of achievement and mastery. But there must also be English lessons of an utterly different kind, during which the atmosphere of the classroom is what it is during a good lesson in musical appreciation. This is the atmosphere of the concert hall and the theatre.'

(p. 11)

To sum up: the complaint goes that in the past there was little or no connection between the various aspects of English. However, the reaction to this has sometimes been too extreme, suggesting a wholesale mixing of the three components. The result is that grammar is not taught properly and that literature and composition lessons are ruined. The answer lies in a via media - keeping the components basically separate but allowing for cross-reference where necessary or useful.

(2) The first complaint, then, on the part of the modernists (as outlined in (1) above) is that the grammar that was taught in the separate grammar lesson was divorced from what was done in the other English lessons. The solution, they maintain, is to abolish the grammar lesson and integrate grammar completely with literature and composition. The second complaint, however, is diametrically opposed to the first and therefore comes to a contrary conclusion: the complaint there is that, even if there was not direct connection between the grammar lesson and the others in the past, the presence of grammar in the timetable meant that grammar nevertheless intruded, willynilly, too strongly upon literature and composition lessons. This, it is argued, was one of the symptoms of the general tendency to over-emphasise the intellectual and social aspects and to neglect the individual emotional aspect - often called the 'creative' aspect - both in education generally and in English particularly - which above all offers the opportunity to develop the emotional side of the child.

As regards literature, it is argued that in the past there was too much stress placed on knowledge about literature - its history, the themes and the style - rather than the child's personal emotional response to the work. Literature teaching was thus purely an academic exercise which consisted of handing down socially acceptable intellectual interpretations of, for example, poems. Today, the 'discovery' approach is

advocated so that the child may arrive at his own impressions. This is indeed a salutary recognition of the fact that the teacher ought to try to arouse a personal response from the child rather than to dictate notes concerning meaning and style. Once again, however, a problem arises from the tendency to over-react to the past and to reject any rational elements in literature teaching - even on the part of the pupil himself. Thus the pupil is simply encouraged to 'experience' a poem, but he is not called upon to communicate his response or justify it in any way. In the past, it was what Rodger (1969) called the 'public' aspect which was over-emphasised at the expense of the personal. Today the tendency is to swing the pendulum to the opposite extreme - and this means not the integration of grammar but the ousting of grammar altogether on the grounds that it was one of the elements of the interfering 'public' aspect. The ideal lies, once again, in a middle road: to accept that there are two stages to literary appreciation - firstly the personal response, and then the critical aspect. If the past forgot the first it will not solve the problem by now neglecting the second. In this way, grammar can be seen, as was suggested in the previous chapter, as having a justifiable role to play in the literature lesson.

The same applies to the use of grammar in the writing programme. The complaint of the modernists is that there was too much emphasis on grammatical correctness and stylistic appropriateness at the expense of originality and spontaneity - hence the dull, stereotyped compositions so many children produce. Compositions would be handed back with numerous red marks all over the page but no comment on the worthwhileness or otherwise of the content. The 'grammatical 'corrections' would not bear any direct relationship to the grammar lessons - as was mentioned above - but they would nevertheless be heavily stressed. The result was that the child's creativity was not encouraged - in fact, it was stifled, because he became too frightened to write in case he made errors.

Once again, the reaction to past misdemeanours has brought about salutary changes in the teaching of composition - but this, incidentally, can be wrecked by the contradictory stress on the unitary approach. Furthermore, there has been the usual tendency to over-react and place too much stress on the personal, creative aspect and a derision of the need to write correctly or effectively. What needs to be acknowledged is that there are two stages in writing, as in literary appreciation: the creative and the editorial. Whereas in the past the second was over-stressed, today it is the first which is over-emphasised. This new tendency does

not take cognisance of certain important facts: Basically, this approach is based on the facile assumption that every child is capable of producing superb pieces of 'creative writing'; that this tremendous creative potential is being stifled by over-emphasis on the language aspects of compositon; and that therefore all that is needed is more and more of the right kind of motivation. If, however, one examines what faculties are required in order to be able to do this, one realises that it is to be expected that not every child would be particularly talented in this way - much in the same way that every child is not necessarily extremely musical or artistic.

Basically, 'creative writing' is used to refer to writing which is both imaginative and original (usually as regards content and general style rather than as regards linguistic style). Thus, although all composition is 'creative' from one point of view, it is not normally regarded as 'creative writing' if it does not fulfil these requirements. The Dictionary of Psychology (1952/69) defines 'imagination' as the

> '... constructive ... employment of past perceptual experience, revivied as images in a present experience at the ideational level, which is not in its totality a reproduction of past experience, but a new organisation of material derived from past experience.'
>
> (p. 130)

This imaginative construction can be either 'creative' or 'imitative' - 'creative when self-initiated and self-organised, and imitative when following a construction initiated by and organised by another'. 'Creative writing', therefore, is the product of the 'creative imagination'. Thus, in order to produce a piece of creative writing, the child needs to be imaginative, creative and linguistically talented.

In terms of the above definition, a sound imagination requires at least the following qualities: a perceptive mind; a good memory; a mind not limited to the abstract. It goes without saying that one cannot expect every child to possess all these qualities in sizeable quantities. There are some children that do not possess alert minds that can register sounds, sights, etc. very vividly. There are also many who are not possessed of particularly good memories. Finally, there are those that are more inclined towards abstract concepts and reasoning, with the result that their ability to recast past experience in concrete images rather than to argue logically about the meaning of them, will not be very extensive. A good imagination therefore involves a constellation

of talents; if one or more of these is not present in sufficient quantitites the child will not have a very fertile imagination.

Furthermore, whatever his innate abilities, his home environment also plays a part - it may either foster or inhibit his inborn qualities. A child who comes from a culturally deprived home will lack sufficient experience on which to draw. Not only will his geographical and social mobility have been small, but even his vicarious experiences from literature will be limited owing to the lack of emphasis on books in the home. Some children, because of the fact that they are strongly blessed with the requisite inherent qualities, may be able to rise above these limitations - but, even here, they will need the assistance of certain personality traits - e.g. independence, confidence.

But even if the child is imaginative, his imagination may not necessarily be creative. Teachers who naïvely stress 'creativity' often tend to oversimplify it, thinking of it as a single inborn quality. However, psychologists have found that it is an extremely complex pattern of abilities that comprise creativity. Guilford, for example, summed up his findings as follows:

> 'Creativity, like love, is a many-splendoured thing.'

Among the many qualities that psychologists have listed as being typical of the creative child are: inductive reasoning; a receptive as opposed to a critical attitude towards novel ideas; independence; energy; a preference for complexity; and a host of other qualities. Anne Anastasi (1968) comments that '... large and significant differences in a number of personality traits have been found between creative and non-creative groups'. She sums up her view of creativity as follows:

> 'It is thus apparent that creative achievement - whether in science, engineering, art, music or other fields of human endeavour - requires a complex pattern of aptitudes and personality traits appropriate to the particular field.'
>
> (p. 381)

It is not surprising, therefore, that there are many children who do not present much evidence of creative potential.

Even if a child, however, were to be both creative and imaginative, this does not necessarily mean that he will be able to produce what is called 'creative writing', since he may not be able to write well, 'creatively' or not: the 'creative' child needs the necessary linguistic resources

required to give expression to his creative potential. It was pointed out in Chapter 111 that not all children are born with the same linguistic aptitude and that even where they are, their opportunities for learning the language can have a detrimental or beneficial effect on their potential. Thus they simply may not have the resources to cope with the situation. There are children who have only the vaguest notion of the 'sentence' as the unit of expression, whose knowledge of sentence varieties and ways of combining are sadly limited. It is not surprising, therefore, that they write in such a monotonous style. Many possess a vocabulary which is extremely threadbare - can one expect these children to choose the appopriate word when their lexical resources hardly offer the possibility of choice ? To these children, the writing of a mere five-word sentence is sheer hard work - writing is thus a drudgery to them. Furthermore, as they move up the school, they fall more and more behind as greater demands are made of them; they thus lose their confidence and any interest theymay have had in writing.

It can be seen from this that is is naïve to assume that every child is inherently capable of producing outstanding 'creative writing', and that to blame the poverty of some children's writing on the lack of motivation and encouragement, the lack of stress on originality of content and the over-emphasis on grammar is sheer nonsense. The fact is simply that many children do not possess the necessary qualities and abilities required to achieve a high standard of creative writing - a good imagination, a creative bent and a sound linguistic ability.

It is possible to argue, however, that there might have been (and still are) cases where the over-emphasis on, inter alia, grammar may have stifled the relative amount of talent of a child for creative writing. But this all depends on how one uses the grammar: if one is negative, or if one stresses only linguistic correctness at the expense of originality of content and style, then this might happen. But then the fault lies not with the grammar but with the teacher. Furthermore, if the child requires a reasonable linguistic ability to realise his creative potential, and if (as was suggested in the last chapter) grammar can develop a child's linguistic ability, then it can be argued that the failure to produce worhtwhile 'creative writing' might be the result not of too much grammar and too little motivation, but too much motivation and too little grammar. At any rate, it is also true to say that, even where grammar is taught in a stifling way, most truly creative children will rise above these inhibiting forces - witness the great writers

and speakers who have realised their creative potential despite the fact that they were taught grammar and composition in a sterile manner.

A final point to note here is that, even if it were impossible to reconcile creativity and grammar, and one had to accept that one can only have either one or the other, it must be accepted that, in terms of the socially accepted function of schools, it is more important that the child be encouraged to achieve grammatical correctness than that his creativity be fostered. A school does not operate in a vacuum - it has to serve the society in which it functions. And it is a common complaint, especially today, against schools that children are not being taught to write. As was suggested above, creativity and grammar are not necessarily irreconcilable; but if one has to be sacrificed owing to other factors - e.g. owing to time - then there might be an argument for suggesting that it ought to be creativity rather than grammar which will have to be ousted.

To sum up: It can be seen that there are two over-reactions here to two different and opposing 'malpractices' of the past. The complaint that grammar was taught as an isolated discipline has led to the claim that it ought to be totally integrated into the literature and composition lessons. On the other hand, the complaint that grammar tended to interfere too much with composition and literature has caused many to seek the abolition of grammar altogether. Some of the modernists, as it were, would like to have their cake and eat it. The solution, it seems, is a middle path which enables one to get the best of both worlds: teach grammar in separate lessons, in the same way that literature and composition are, but be prepared to cross-refer from one to the other.

In this way, grammar can serve the pragmatic aims quite admirably, even within the confines of a child-centred theory of education. It can be added here, that the liberal aim would obviously also be better served if grammar is taught in separate lessons. And if one is going to teach grammar as a study in its own right in order to achieve the pragmatic aims, one may as well also try to achieve the liberal aim. But there is a more positive claim for the liberal aim within the bounds of the child-centred approach. Usually the two are regarded as being incompatible, but this is not so: if grammar is taught as a human (and humanitarian) subject, it will help the child to achieve a richer appreciation of himself and his environment - and surely this is in keeping with the modern approach to education ? There is, thus a case

for grammar today within the scope of (or despite) the current child-centred theory of education.

4.2 The Teacher: Training and Qualifications

A further, and vital, factor affecting the contents and approach of a textbook for English Grammar is the person who interprets the text - the teacher. It is essential that one take into account his training and the attitudes and level of knowledge which follow from his training. Since, as will be seen later, all this is related fairly closely to the approach of certain standard school textbooks, this section will also include a critical examination of these particular textbooks.

4.2.1 If one looks at the teachers of English in the high schools of the Cape Province, one finds that most of them seem to be at least adequately qualified as regards degree qualifications in English. This can be seen by examining the conclusions of three independent surveys over a period of eight years:

(a) In 1969 the National Bureau of Educational and Social Research (now called the Human Sciences Research Council) published the findings of a survey conducted by P. Crouse, entitled 'The Teaching of English Higher Grade in South African Secondary Schools' (Research Series No. 42). Questionnaires were sent to teachers of English throughout the Republic during the first term of 1965. 257 of the total number of respondents (1083) were from the Cape Province.

(b) In 1964, under the auspices of the Institute for the Study of English in Africa, a questionnaire was sent to teachers of English Higher in South Africa. 38 of the 97 respondents were from the Cape.

(c) Finally, in June 1973, I posted a questionnaire, also under the auspices of the Institute, to teachers of English in the Cape. Altogether 80 replied, of whom 61 were teachers of English as a First Language. Only the latter 61 replies were analysed. (See Appendix A.)

The respective findings (in round percentages) of these thre surveys are as follows:

DEGREE QUALIFICATIONS IN ENGLISH			
	1965 (N=257)	1964 (N=38)	1973 (N=61)
English 1	9%	13%	10%
English 11	15%	29%	8%
English 111	53%	40%	72%
English 1V+ (Honours, etc.)	9%	16%	10%

These figures cannot be directly compared, since the latter two cover a smaller sample than the first and were filled in by the Senior English Teacher, whereas the 1965 questionnaire was completed by all the teachers in the school. Nevertheless one can see that the broad spectrum is the same in all three – there are few teachers who possess less than the minimum requirement of a second-year university English course – an average of about 11%. The majority have at least English 11 or English 111. The fact that at least 17% do not have English 111 is not entirely satisfactory, but in general terms the situation as regards degree qualifications in English is adequate.

The question which concerns us here is the content of these degree courses, in particular as regards the amount of formal grammar they contain. The 1973 Questionnaire asked teachers to indicate the extent to which their degree courses included the study of English Grammar. Their replies were as follows:

AMOUNT OF FORMAL GRAMMAR		
	Number	Approx. %
Extensively	1	2%
Superficially	24	39%
Not at all	34	56%
No Response	2	
TOTAL	61	

There are no other figures available at present for the Cape to corroborate these; however, two recent small surveys in the Transvaal come to similar conclusions. Both of these were conducted by the Communication Studies Unit of the University of the Witwatersrand. The first was sent to the Heads of Departments of English in 40 Transvaal Secondary schools. 16 teachers responded. The compilers reported as follows:

> Q. 11 What is your academic/professional background in Grammar, and/or language studies ? (By language studies is meant an intensive course in language in use.)
>
> (a) Grammar: Very minimal – mostly Anglo-Saxon/Language usage sub-courses in English Literature University Courses. Plus some work on language (minimal) in H.E.D./H.Dip.Ed. Courses. One respondent had Linguistics 3 + Hons Applied Linguistics.
>
> (b) Language in Use: 3 respondents had UNISA courses in general semantics. All others had experience in teaching language usage as their only qualification.

In the second questionnaire, 36 Higher Diploma in Education (i.e. post-graduate) students at the University of the Witwatersrand were asked the following question:

> 'What is your University background in formal Grammar and/or language studies ?'

The response as regards grammar was as follows:

Second or Third Language:	19
Linguistics Course:	1

They were also asked the following question point-blank:

> 'Do you believe your university degree work has prepared you adequately to teach English Grammar/language in use at school ?'

The response was as follows:

YES:	6	(16,6%)
NO:	30	(83,3%)

It can be seen from all of these surveys that, while English teachers are adequately prepared to teach literature, they are not correspondingly equipped to teach grammar. This is surely the only subject in which teachers are called upon (except in emergencies) to teach without due regard to their qualifications. It is required of Science Teachers to be qualified in both Physics and Chemistry in order to teach General Science in schools; and it is necessary to do a course in Mathematics at university to major in Chemistry. The Science teacher, thus, is expected to be qualified in all aspects of his subject. On the contrary, there is no stipulation that the English teacher be qualified in both language and literature. He is, therefore, expected to teach English Grammar merely on the basis of what he himself was taught at school in English and/or Latin Grammar plus what he can glean from available school textbooks. If one considers that there were periods in our history when English Grammar was not taught, one realises that there are a considerable number of teachers who have <u>only</u> Latin Grammar as a basis for teaching English Grammar. Furthermore, if the pendulum continues to swing against grammar in the schools, the situation will be worse if, in future, grammar were restored to favour, since Latin as a subject in our schools is rapidly declining in popularity.

The result of this situation is that most teachers have never studied Traditional Grammar at an academic level. They therefore have very little understanding of the theoretical basis of Traditional Grammar. Their

knowledge of of the grammar, furthermore, is both limited (they know very little more than what they actually impart to their pupils), inaccurate and inexplicit. Two ex-teachers in Cape schools, Messrs. J. Gardener and D. Thomson (1963), have described the situation as follows:

> 'Put simply, and provocatively, scarcely any of the teachers in our schools really know their grammar. We all know the superstitious, half-baked grammarians who specialise in crossing out "got", putting in apostrophes, and insisting that the dear old main clause stands by itself (which it never does), and who know just little enough to lay down the law about everything.'
>
> (p. 129)

What makes the situation worse is the fact that most of these teachers are also untrained in any of the modern grammars of Linguistics. The result is that they are oblivious of most of the deficiencies of Traditional Grammar (both academic and school versions), since they lack a training in Linguistics which gives them an understanding of language and puts at their disposal some more recent attempts to describe the language. And even when they perceive deficiencies, they cannot do anything about them.

With a lack of academic training in both old and new grammars, the teacher proceeds to teach his pupils. Since his knowledge of grammar is what he himself was taught at school (and that has grown vague during the dormant period at university), he relies slavishly on the frequently inaccurate standard traditional school texts. It is not to be expected that his teaching will be particularly accurate or stimulating under those conditions. His pupils, with their inadequate knowledge of grammar, then proceed to university to become English teachers. And so the vicious circle goes on.

It is to be expected, under these conditions, that the English teacher entering the profession is not liable to have a satisfactory knowledge of either the old or the newer grammars. That this is so, can be seen by examining the answers to a questionnaire issued to 50 English 1 students from Cape High Schools on entering Rhodes University in 1970. A number of blatant misconceptions are revealed - nearly all of which can be traced back to the textbooks on which their teachers were forced to rely. Thus, the analysis of the responses to the questionnaire is best accompanied by a critical analysis of the standard textbooks that have helped to create these misconceptions. It might, of course, be

argued that pupils leaving schools will have misunderstandings in other subjects as well, and that not all of these can be traced back to the teaching and the textbooks. This is true; the difference, however, is that in other subjects the student will have the opportunity to clarify and correct his knoweldge during his years of training at university, whereas the teacher of English Grammar has no such opportunity. Therefore, by examining the answers to this questionnaire one can glean fairly well the level of knowledge of English Grammar of the starting teacher. Furthermore, the fact that he is liable to use the same textbooks from which he was taught (unlike other subjects, whose textbooks are continually updated), he will not, even in teaching, sort out many of his misconceptions.

Two main faults in particular stood out here:

(i) A lack of understanding of the basic terms.

(ii) A lack of awareness of grammar as an interrelated system of terms - i.e. that grammar is more than a mere list of terms, but a metalanguage.

1. TERMINOLOGY

(a) Verbs

The following sentences were given with the instruction that the 'verb' be underlined:

(i) He swims.

(ii) They were swimming.

(iii) They are the children who live in the area.

(iv) While crossing the Transkei we were surprised at the great progress they had made.

The answers were as follows:

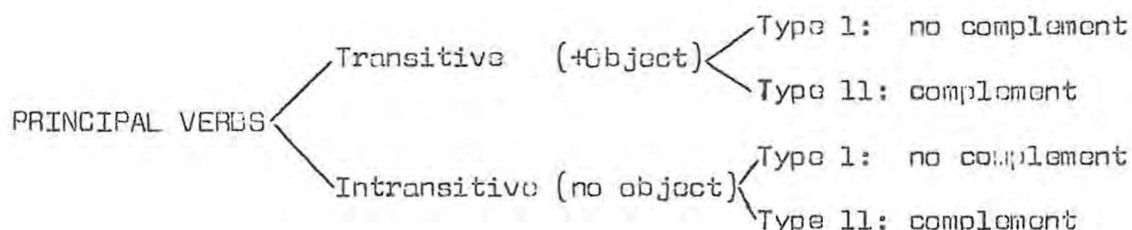
(i)	swims	50	(100%)	N=50
(ii)	were swimming	45	(90%)	
	were	5	(10%)	
(iii)	are	39	(78%)	
	live	49	(98%)	
	who live	1	(2%)	
(iv)	were surprised	46	(92%)	
	were	3	(6%)	
	we were	1	(2%)	
	had made	47	(94%)	
	had	2	(3%)	
	they had made	1	(2%)	
	crossing	2	(4%)	
	while crossing	2	(4%)	

The first point that emerges here is the fact that, although the majority obviously had a sound idea as to what a 'verb' is, there were a few who had no concept of the verb at all; hence the underlining of 'who were', 'we were', 'they had made' and 'while crossing'. These, however, were a small minority. What is more disturbing is the lack of a proper understanding of the VP by so many. All of the respondents accepted 'swims' as a verb in (i), but there was a divergence of opinion about the others. The majority (90%) underlined 'were swimming' in (ii) as well as 'were surprised' in (iii) and 'were surprised' and 'had made' in (iv). Only 4%, however, underlined 'crossing' in (iv). They would probably argue their case along these lines: they took the instruction to mean 'finite verb', and those they underlined were all finite verbs, whereas 'crossing' is a participle and therefore non-finite. Yet there is a confusion of thought here: if 'crossing' is a non-finite verb, then surely so is 'swimming'; they are thus arguing that the finite verb 'were swimming' contains a non-finite verb, 'swimming'! It is possibly on these grounds that some did not underline the whole verb cluster, but simply the auxiliary in each case; not to underline 'crossing' is then more logical. On the other hand, their reasoning might not have been so sound - they may have underlined what they regarded as the finite verb in (ii) and (iv), namely 'were', and left the rest on the grounds that what follows these is a complement - a very common error amongst school pupils. What is obviously lacking is any sense of a verb cluster which is not finite or non-finite, but which may contain verbs that are either finite or non-finite in form.

It is easy to see why there is this confusion when one examines the three chapters on verbs in the Standard V11 version of Fletcher and Sccales's Junior High School English (pre-1973 edition), the most popular text in schools, according to the 1973 ISEA Questionnaire (Appendix A).

The first chapter has a heading 'Classes of Verbs', under which two types are mentioned: Principal and Auxiliary. Principal verbs are discussed, and it is pointed out that they can be either transitive or intransitive. Auxiliary verbs are not defined here but simply mentioned. These next heading is 'Verbs of Incomplete Predication'. These are defined on p. 59 as verbs that 'do not make complete sense until what is termed a complement has been added'. Transitive verbs are said to take objective complements and intransitive verbs subjective complements. It is strange that these are no listed under the heading 'Classes of Verbs'

and regarded as certain kinds or sub-classes of principal verbs - i.e. 'incomplete' ones. Surely the classification should be:



A point made under this heading is that in the sentence 'He is sleeping', 'sleeping' is not a complement, but a participle, and the verb is 'is sleeping'. An auxiliary verb is then defined as 'one that helps another verb and is not used alone'. Not only is it confusing to have auxiliary verbs discussed under the heading 'Verbs of Incomplete Predication' rather than under 'Classes of Verbs' but also, despite the authors' insistence that they do not take complements, the definition of an auxiliary verb seems to fit in with the definition of a verb of incomplete predication - hence the possible confusion of a number of the respondents to the Rhodes English 1 Questionnaire.

The next chapter is concerned with the idea of 'Mood'. This is defined as 'the various forms a verb may take when different actions are presented' - which means practically nothing. Two kinds of mood are mentioned:

1. Finite (= complete) - Indicative, Imperative & Subjunctive

2. Infinite (= not complete) - Infinitive Proper, Participles Gerunds

Examples are given of each. Under Indicative Mood one example given is:

(1) The pupil has finished his work.

Then, later, under the Infinitive Mood, the following are given:

(2) She has gone.
(3) She will be going.

Contradictory statements are made about (1) and (2), in which the verb clusters are the same. In (1), 'has finished' is called 'finite'; but in (2) 'gone' is labelled a participle, Infinitive Mood. Here, then, we see the confusion that causes a pupil to imply that a finite verb contains non-finite verbs. It is surely clearer to call the structure a verb cluster (or verb phrase), and not to label it as finite or non-finite, but

simply to state whether the first verb in the cluster is finite in form or not. This approach, however, would not fit in with their description of (3) above, where only 'going' is underlined as being non-finite – what of 'be' ? Nor would this be in keeping with statements in the post-1973 (revised) edition. There (on pages 108 – 9) the participle is called finite in the following example:

(4) He has completed the task.

Not only does this contradict what is said in the earlier book but left completely unsaid in the revised edition, but the authors have still not recognised that it is 'has' which is 'finite' in form here. The whole question of finite and non-finite forms of auxiliaries is not ever mentioned.

The post-1973 edition does nothing to clarify the issue. It does not spell out the grammar in so much detail, causing a general vagueness in the text, and makes new statements which simply cause further confusions: the authors begin by classifying verbs into 'being' and 'doing' verbs. They then move on to discuss auxiliary verbs, but not in opposition to principal verbs – this whole concept is dropped. Later they discuss transitive and intransitive verbs, but simply as further kinds of verbs. How exactly auxiliaries related to 'being' and 'doing' verbs on the one hand and to transitivity on the other, and how transitivity relates to 'being' and 'doing' verbs, is not made clear.

(b) Phrases

The following sentence was given in the Questionnaire with the instruction that the adjective be underlined:

The very large boy could not lift the cannon ball.

All identified 'large' as an adjective, but 14 (28%) also underlined 'very'. This could stem from the fact that the grammar they were taught was a grammar of words and not phrases. Thus phrases as such were not dealt with in any detail, and the parts of speech were dealt with individually and not in the context of the phrase. Thus the so-called 'Aadverb of Degree' is not mentioned during a discussion of the noun phrase, but under the heading 'Adverb'. The pupil thus gains no clear picture of the options available at various places in the phrase and how the parts of a phrase relate to each other.

The same can be seen by looking at their answer to the question where they were asked to underline the adverbs in the following sentence:

The early bird catches the worm.

34 (68%) underlined 'early', probably because it ends in -ly and refers to time. This shows a complete lack of understanding of the noun phrase options.

The basic fault here is that sentences are dealt with not as wholes. Parts of speech are dealt with individually, and each time pupils are called upon to identify the particular parts of speech that have just been studied. Furthermore, although they begin with a definition of 'subject' and 'predicate', no attempt is made to relate all the parts of speech stage-by-stage to these two main aspects of the sentence. The whole interrelationship of the various parts of the sentence and the possible options for each part are not realised at all.

(c) Subject and Predicate

It was clear that many did not understand the whole concept of subject at all. They were given the following sentence and told to underline the subject:

(1) Where are the people you saw yesterday ?

There are actually three possible answers here:

1. 'you' (subject of the subordinate clause, 'you saw yesterday').
2. 'the people' (subject of the main clause, 'The people ... are AdvP').
3. 'the people you saw yesterday' (subject of the underlying sentence, 'the people you saw yesterday are AdvP').

Only 27 (54%), however, gave any of these possibilities:

you : 23
the people: 4

Others gave:

the people (4)
people (8)
Where are the people (3)
Where (3)
the people you (1)
omitted (6)

It is clear from this that some do not even realise that the subject typically refers to someone or something, and that many are generally

somewhat hazy about the whole concept of the 'subject'.

When given easier examples such as the following, the students were able to guess more accurately:

(2) The big boy has seen the dog.

The reason for their inability to cope with more difficult examples can again be traced back to the approach of Fletcher and Scoales. Subject and Predicate are mentioned and defined in terms of statement sentences; later the authors deal with other kinds of simple sentences (e.g. questions), but by this stage they are no longer interested in subjects and predicates any more, so the pupil is left with the idea of a subject always occurring first in the sentence. The notion of transformation is is also lacking. Furthermore, when dealing with non-simple sentences, the authors do not indicate that each clause is basically a simple sentence consisting of a subject and predicate; thus the student is not equipped to find the subject in a sentence which is not simple.

Another point which arose from this question was the fact that there were two approaches to the subject which were equally followed - either to regard the noun alone or the whole noun phrase as the subject. The most common answers to (2) above were:

boy :	22
the big boy :	23

This, too, arises from the confused approach of Messrs. Fletcher and Scoales. They define 'the big boy' as the subject; yet, when discussing nouns, they mention that a noun can function as subject and give examples where the noun is part of a noun phrase functioning as subject. The fact that there was a division of opinion among the students stems either from the fact that they became confused by this dual approach or that their teachers resolved the ambiguity one way or the other. The same would also apply to the object.

The predicate was also not clearly understood. But here there was not the same division between those who underlined the key-word (here the verb or verb cluster) as opposed to those who took the whole VP. The first sentence was:

(3) He is visiting his parents.

The replies were as follows:

is visiting	29
is visiting his parents	3
his parents	7
is	3
parents	4
visiting	1
visiting his parents	1
omitted	2

The second sentence was and the responses were as follows:

(4) The old man lost his sandals at the beach.

lost	20
lost his sandals	4
his sandals	3
his sandals at the beach	4
sandals	6
lost his sandals at the beach	2
at the beach	1
lost ... at the beach	1
omitted	2

The prevailing answer for both examples was to call the verb or verb cluster the predicate. The other alternative, however, was not to call the whole VP the predicate - there were numerous other alternatives. The confusion here can be seen when one looks again at Fletcher and Sceales's handling of the topic. They regard the whole VP as the predicate, but then proceed to ask pupils to divide sentences into three parts - Subject, Verb and Object. The notion of Verb + Object together forming the Predicate is thus gradually lost; in fact, the term 'Predicate' is hardly ever used again. However, then a pupil later thinks back to what he was taught, the most significant part of the Predicate comes to mind, viz. the verb. Furthermore, the <u>other</u> structures in the Predicate (e.g. Adverbial Phrases) are also discussed in a way that only links them with the notion 'Predicate' in a very tenuous way. Pupils therefore come to see the sentence as consisting of Subject-Verb-Object-Adverbial Phrase. The whole notion of a sentence consisting of a hierarchical structure which contains sub-structures and sub-sub-structures is not seen at all. In fact, the overall structure of the sentence is not stressed; only its small parts are discussed and then more or less forgotten as the emphasis is placed more and more on the <u>word</u>.

11. SYSTEM VS CATALOGUE

Not only were those students confused about certain terms, but it was also clear that they had no idea of the way in which all the terms cohere

in a systematic description of the language. It has already been mentioned that the awareness of the interrelation of all the various syntactic structures and elements is lacking. But it is clear that the interrelationship between an organised syntax and the other aspects of grammar - morphology, meaning and sound - is also not grasped.

This can be seen by looking at their definitions of the 'noun'. The common one was the traditional 'notional' definition - 'the name of a person, place or thing'. There were also a few who defined it in 'functional' terms - 'a word which can be subject, object, governed by a preposition, etc.'. Very few saw that the noun is both of these - it serves various functions in the sentence and conveys a typical kind of meaning. Furthermore, none defined the noun in 'structural' terms - i.e. by co-occurrence (e.g. it can be preceded by an article) and inflexions (e.g. it can be inflected for plural). The whole idea of a noun being the name of a class of words that typicallyrefer to 'things' (animate-inanimate; human-non-human; concrete-abstract; etc.); that relate functionally to the rest of the sentence (e.g. subject-object); and that can be inflected (e.g. for tense, number, etc.) is lacking.

In fact, all the student has is a set of tenuously related terms. The grammar on which he has been reared is a grammar of the word. Thus he sees no overall relation between the various terms - synonyms and antonyms; prefixes and suffixes; subjects and predicates; singular and plural; spelling and pronunciation; meaning and structure; voice, mood and tense; gender and concord; case; clauses and phrases - all of these are simply a maze of terms in his mind which do not often interrelate to each other and form part of an overall coherent picture of language. He has, in other words, a terminology, not a metalanguage.

This section (4.2.1), then, has argued that the English teacher entering his profession is not properly equipped to teacher English Grammar. All he has is his own school knowledge and the standard school textbooks from which he teaches and from which he was taught. And an examination of these (especially the main one by Fletcher and Scoales, which is basically very similar to the second most popular text by Coetzer and Vivier) reveals the source of many of the confused concepts of these teachers.

4.2.2 The question which arises from this is: Why is it that teachers of English have not been trained in Grammar ? The blame for the solution - until recently, at any rate - can least be said to lie with the teacher himself. The fact is that, even if they had wanted to take a course in grammar as part of their university English Course, they would not have been able to do so. Universities have simply not offered such courses until very recently in the Cape. Teachers of bygone years therefore were not given any instruction in traditional grammar, and more recently qualified teachers were not given instruction in the modern grammars of Linguistics. University courses in English have tended by tradition to be orientated to the study of literature. Professor F.G. Butler, of Rhodes University, made the following statement in 1963:

> 'Let me state at once that ... the critical emphasis helps students to experience literature as a vital moral and cultural force. I do not wish to change this. Yet, I ask, have we not become a little too Narcissistic - staring lovingly at our image in the pool of English literature ? - a question which English dons are asking themselves in Britain as well. Have we not, in our determination to put our students onto effective possession of the greatest literature in the world, neglected the language of that literature, and, by so doing, severely limited the numbers who can read the literature itself ?'
>
> (Copeland: 1963, p. 10)

In the same article, Butler complains of the 'neglect of language studies at Universities and Training Colleges' and the fact that 'in general, our universities have an anti-language bias'.

A number of universities have, during the past decade, managed to break through this bias and set up Language Courses as part of the English Degree Courses. Three of the Cape universities - Stellenbosch, Rhodes and the University of Port Elizabeth - have actually set up separate Departments of Linguistics on the grounds that a student cannot learn enough about language by taking one or two papers as part of their English (or Afrikaans) courses. In theory this is a vast improvement, but in practice all is not so well. Prospective teachers of English are not compelled to take a course in Linguistics; in fact, they are discouraged from doing so, since the Department of Education of the Cape has refused to recognise Linguistics as one of the 'approved' degree courses that a student must include in his Bachelor's degree in order to be qualified as a teacher. In September 1975 a Conference was held in Grahamstown, where professors of Linguistics met with educationists in order that they might seek ways of making their courses acceptable to the Education Departments of the Republic. But even if they succeed, this is

not enough: every prospective language teacher ought to do a course in Linguistics. Until this becomes a compulsory stipulation, the ignorance of teachers will remain. The only other alternative is to build up a strong 'linguistics' component within all language programmes.

The situation as regards future teacher-trainees, then, is both promising and disturbing. What of those who are already in teaching and who have no linguistic training ? The usual way in which teachers are brought up-to-date in their subjects is by being provided with in-service courses - as we have seen in other subjects (e.g. the courses to introduce the 'New Mathematics' and the 'New Science'). As regards English, the 'creative' approach to English has also been propagated in this way. In-service courses in the Cape, however, have done practically nothing abour grammar, old or new. In 1970, at the In-service Training Course for Teachers of English at Rhodes University (organised by the Cape Education Department), 50 minutes in five days were devoted to the topic of English Grammar - and it was not stipulated that the paper should put forward modern ideas. At the In-service Course held, also in Grahamstown, in 1973, there was once again only one talk - this time half an hour - which, despite its title ('A New Look at the Teaching of Grammar'), had nothing to do with the grammars of Modern Linguistics. This contrasts with America, where, as far back as 1960, Paul Roberts could say that Linguistics was 'the hottest topic on the English teachers' agenda'.

There is, then, no official encouragement to teachers to make up their lack of training in English Grammar. There are, however, signs that teachers are becoming curious about Linguistics of their own accord. A number of teachers are now using Comprehensive English Practice, which contains a small section on Linguistics (Appendix A). The English Study Group of Port Elizabeth met three times in 1974 to draw up a document on the teaching of English Grammar, which incorporatd some of the insights of Modern Linguistics. Furthermore, when the motion to the Department about including Linguistics on the 'approved list' was put before the Conference of the South African Teachers' Association in 1974, there was no opposition whatsoever.

These signs of interest, however, are only sporadic. Although some teachers are now using Comprehensive English Practice, the most popular text, as mentioned earlier, is still Fletcher and Scoales's High School English. Not only is this used by more teachers (28 as opposed to 20), but also, if one looks at the reasons for choosing these texts (Appendix

A, Table 6), one realises that only 1 chose Comprehensive English Practice for its formal grammar content, whereas most chose High School English for this reason. Furthermore, as regards reference books, one finds that most teachers are still very conservative. Table 7 shows that the most popular reference is Fowler's Modern English Usage. The only reference that has any modern aspects is Comprehensive English Practice. There were two individuals who respectively cited Roberts's English Series and Branford's Elements of English - but these were the exceptions. The conclusion one must draw from this is that English teachers in the Cape make virtually no use of the insights of Modern Linguistics.

There are a number of reasons for the fact that, except for a few interested teachers, the general mass of English teachers in the Cape appear to be either ignorant of the existence of Linguistics (or, at any rate, its potential value) or apathetic or positively opposed or merely mildly curious:

(a) Firstly, with the teacher's lack of academic training in language, the whole idea that there can be more than one grammar is a totally foreign concept - to him 'grammar is grammar'; he does not see 'grammar' as a developing subject, open to new investigation and to improvement. Even if he can perceive faults in the old, it is not only that he is not equipped to improve on it, but also it seems to him heretical to try to do so - the fact that there might be faults is simply something he has to learn to live with.

(b) However, even where the teacher does come to accept that there might be more than one grammar, there are many difficulties in trying to read up on his own about the grammars of theoretical Linguistics. The main problem is that there are still no adequate introductory texts available for teachers who know nothing but want to know something about Linguistics. He is thus plunged headlong into a plethora of approaches - Structural, Transformational (in its many Chomskyan and its many post-Chomskyan forms), Hallidean, etc. To try to unravel the mysteries of the various theories and to weigh up one against the other without any background is an extremely difficult task. To decide which one to follow or which ones to synthesise requires that one has to have mastered all of them properly in the first place. To do this one needs time, and teachers simply do not

have enough time to do this kind of in-depth research. Herndon (1970) puts it very well when he says:

> '... the overwhelming demands on a teacher's time and energy must also be recognized. Many teachers who teach the language arts must also teach history, geography, literature, art, music, mathematics and elementary science. In addition they must put in several hours a week in pursuit of such non-scholarly occupations as "yard duty", attending faculty or Parents Club meetings, filling out the interminable forms required by this or that urgent school regulation, wiping noses, and instilling a respect for the rights of others into the hearts and minds of their charges.'
>
> (p. vii)

(c) Not only do they have no time, but they also become sceptical when they hear of or read about the squabbles among the linguists. They feel that it is impossible for them to try to follow modern trends when the trend-setters cannot agree among themselves. This attitude, as Markwardt (1966) puts it, is 'wholly inconsistent': 'they are quite prepared to accept the obvious fact that literary critics disagree with one another ...' but will not accept the same for grammarian. They forget, too, that Physics and Mathematics are also in a state of flux. They thus tend sometimes to adopt a scornful attitude towards the modern linguist.

(d) While the linguists might not be able to agree with each other about the 'new' grammars, they are united in their condemnation of the old. The negative and destructive attitude of some linguist towards school grammar is thus a further cause of resentment. The old is attacked, but nothing is given to take its place. Branford (1965) puts it thus:

> 'One of the main effects of linguistics during the first quarter of this century was the destruction and undermining of the traditional Latin-based grammar without substitution of another. The traditional grammar seems to have been created _ad hoc_ in the eighteenth century as a key to the upper-class dialect for the middle and lower classes .... A few generations later it was not difficult for grammarians like Sweet and Jesperson to demonstrate that such categories as "accusative case" and even "future tense" have only a very limited relevance to the structure of Modern English. Meanwhile, there are very few school grammars that are as informative about the structure of English as Kennedy's venerable _Primer_ about the structure of Latin.'

The teacher is thus left in a vacuum - the old is discredited, but the new he cannot grasp in its various academic forms and he has no local adaptations available to show him the way.

(e) Perhaps the greatest factor which deters the teacher from trying to update his knowledge is the fact that at present he sees no reason for doing so. In the first place, without any training in linguistics, he is either unaware of the fact that there is a liberal aim for teaching grammar, or even if he is aware of it, he rejects it, since this is not the traditional approach to language studies in the school - the only approach he knows anything about. To him grammar is purely a means to an end. But even where he accepts the liberal aim as a valid aim, he does not regard it as being very important. This is clear from the responses of teachers to the National Bureau's investigation into 'The teaching of English Higher Grade' (1969). Teachers were asked to rank five given aims in terms of importance in Standards 9 and 10. The following were the most frequent rankings:

AIMS Language teaching with a view to:	Ideal Aims		Practical Aims	
	A	B	A	B
a) practical considerations only	3	1	1	1
b) literary appreciation and the development of the ability to use language creatively	1	3	2	4
c) developing the pupils' minds	2	2	3	3
d) an elementary insight into the scientific study of language	4	4	5	5
e) basic knowledge that will enable pupils to pass the examinations	5	5	4	2

(A & B refer to streams: A = the university stream;
B = the school-leaving stream.)

This shows (if we exclude the last aim) that the pragmatic aims (a to c) are regarded as the most important and the most practicable. Ordinary practical considerations (learning to read, write, etc.) are more important for the B stream than aesthetic functions; while aesthetic functions are important for the A stream. However, for both, the liberal aim is regarded as being of no great importance: it is place 4th for the A stream and last for the B stream.

These conclusions were confirmed by the responses to the 1973 ISEA Questionnaire (Appendix A), where teachers were also asked to rank the given reasons for teaching grammar in order of importance. 23 of the 61 respondents marked the first reason ('to teach the pupil to express himself correctly') as their top priority, while only 10 rated the second reason ('to give the pupil an insight into the structure of the language') as first. Furthermore, if one examines the comments, it is clear that many misunderstood this question - they tended to regard (ii) and a means to (i) - i.e. they did not read this as 'an insight into the structure of the language <u>for its own sake</u>'. If they had, the comments suggest that many would not have included this as a reason at all. The result of this rejection of the liberal aim is that the teacher is not interested in pursuing any new ideasunless he feels that they are likely to help him in the task of developing the child's linguistic ability. The reply is: 'That is all very well - but will it help my pupils to express themselves better ?' If not, the improvements are rejected and the teacher carries on as before. C.S. Lewis (1967) gives a rather amusing caricature of such pragmatists:

> 'He will ask, "But what <u>use</u> is it ?" And finding that it cannot be eaten or drunk, nor used as an aphrodisiac, nor made into an instrument for increasing his income or power, he will pronounce it - he has pronounced it - to be "bunk".'
>
> (p. 127)

The problem is further being complicated by the fact that even the pragmatic aim is being questioned from a point of view of both desirability and practicability. As regards the latter, there is a growing scepticism about the value of traditional school grammar as an aid to improved linguistic expression. Many teachers have been teaching this grammar for years and have found very little transfer. Therefore it is being dismissed as 'useless' and 'largely valueless' - as two teachers put it in 1969 in the correspondence columns of <u>Education</u>. These views were continually echoed in the comments of respondents to the 1973 ISEA Questionnaire. My reply to some of these accusations, published in the December 1970 issue of <u>Education</u>, was as follows:

> 'The question arises: what do they mean by "useless" and "valueless" ? Do they regard this grammar as "useless" in its intrinsic value, or in its <u>applicatory</u> value ? It would seem that both are referring to the latter value: they feel that grammar has not been successful in its task "to teach a child to speak and write grammatically" (Mr Brimer, May, 1970). They put forward a purely pragmatic aim for grammar, in which they feel it has failed.'

But even where the pragmatic aim for grammar is still believed in, there are signs that the pragmatic aim generally (and therefore grammar) is no longer so important as in the past. The child-centred view of education seems to be thrusting other aims forward as more important ones. In the Questionnaire recently sent out to Transvaal schools by the University of the Witwatersrand mentioned ealier, teachers were asked the following question:

> 'The TED syllabus for English First Language, Stds. 5, 6, 7, lists four general aims. Rank these items in terms of your own sense of priorities, 1 - highest, 4 - lowest.
>
> a) To promote the pupil's linguistic skills.
> b) To promote his intellectual, emotional and social development.
> c) To extend his ability to observe, to discriminate, and to order his thoughts coherently.
> d) To help him to understand himself and others so that he may live more fully, happily and more responsibly.'

The responses were as follows:

1st:	c
2nd:	b
3rd:	d
4th:	a

Now since the traditional view in our schools is that grammar helps only with (a) -- it is not realised that linguistics is a study based on 'ability to observe, to discriminate and to order [one's] thoughts' - it can be seen that the rank ordering above will tend to reduce the importance of grammar and therefore also the desire to inquire into modern trends in the subject.

(f) But even if the teacher were to overcome all these problems, the syllabus and the examinations are likely to frustrate him, as neither makes provision for a more modern approach. Earlier in this chapter it was pointed out that the new 1973 syllabuses play down the importance of formal grammar. Speaking of the examinations under the old syllabus, Branford (1965) had this to say:

> 'My point is simply that the present papers offer little encouragement to the teacher who may wish to introduce his pupils to notions about language that are less than forty or fifty years old.'

The fact that the examinations were based on traditional school grammar, thus acted as a deterrent to any teacher who wished to read up on new ideas and experiment with them in his classroom. A further point about the

examinations was the fact that they provided little incentive even to teach the old grammar as well as possible, since very few marks (usually about 20 out of the 140 allotted to the Language Paper) were devoted to it. One irate respondent to the 1973 ISEA Questionnaire, speaking of formal grammar, put it thus:

> 'It serves only to give a pupil a feeling of security so that he can earn a few marks in the examinations! So instead of getting 4/20 he gets 11/20, and for 7 marks out of 400 I have wasted one period a week for five years!'

The new syllabus stresses the contextual form of examining internally (which is not likely to encourage a study of language as such) and no examining of formal grammar externally. This latter innovation is likely to lead many to drop it altogether. A respondent to the 1973 ISEA Questionnaire asked: 'Why put it in the syllabus when it really is not examined ?' On the other hand, it should also be noted that, to the particularly adventurous teacher, this may be a blessing in disguise - not having to prepare his pupils for a traditional external examination in formal grammar, he is now free to teach it as he likes.

4.2.3 To sum up: In the past, teachers were not trained adequately or at all to teach English Grammar. At present there are signs of improvement at university level, so that at least some of those who are and will be training to become English teachers will be better equipped Meanwhile, however, nothing is being done at an official level to encourage practising teachers to update their knowledge of English Grammar. A few teachers are showing signs of interest in doing this anyway, but there are various factors which militate against their doing so successfully.

The next chapter will take up the various points made in this one and point out the problems that this context creates for the writer of a textbook for the 'population' in its present state, and suggest some ways of overcoming them.

CHAPTER V

The Features of the Textbook

It was stated in Chapter 1 that the primary concern of this Thesis is the features - the content, approach and layout - of a grammar textbook for English Higher Grade (First Language) in the Cape Senior School, with special reference to the contribution of Linguistics to such a textbook. The Thesis so far has, therefore, consisted of two main parts:

1. The academic background of the subject called 'English Grammar' - in particular the aims and methods of English Grammarians since the Eighteenth Century. (Chapter 11)

11. The school situation - the aims of teaching grammar in the high school (Chapter 111) and the context in which a textbook that sets out to achieve these aims operates (Chapter 1V).

This Chapter now forms the final section of the Thesis - it sets out to give an account of the actual features of such a school textbook.

The textbook writer for schools is, as it were, caught between two stools - on the one hand, the non-school, philosophical research into the exciting phenomena of language; and on the other the grammar that operates within an educational context. What makes his task difficult is the fact that, as was pointed out in Chapter 1V, there is no simple linear relationship between these two independent but related fields. The educational author thus becomes, in effect, a kind of mediator between the two disciplines. He is torn between the idealistic side of his character - the desire to maintain the integrity of his subject (in this case modern 'Linguistic' grammar) in order to update the school version of the subject - and his recognition of the fact that he must also be realistic - he must accept that the particular circumstances in which his text operates can make or break the text, no matter how true or not it is to its academic basis. He sets out, in other words, to produce a text which is both academically respectable and pedagogically possible.

5.1 Audiences and Circumstances

The reason for the educationist's dilemma is that, as Pit Corder (1973) points out, the writing of a grammar is subject to the fundamental law of all effective communication - what is said and how it is said must be adapted to suit the needs of a particular audience in a particular set of circumstances. And the audience and circumstances of the linguist are quite different from those of the educationist:

5.1.1 As regards the differences between the audiences, the following characteristics can be singled out for consideration: Firstly, they differ as regards language proficiency: the linguist is dealing with an audience whose linguistic abilities are considerably superior to those of the audience the educationist has in mind. Not only are they older and more experienced users of the language, but they are a select group in that they all have above average linguistic talents and have had the good fortune of a sound linguistic environment to develop these talents. The audience of the educationist, on the other hand, consists of children, whose linguistic skills are still undeveloped, and includes many with poor innate abilities and/or unfavourable environmental conditions. Secondly, the respective audiences differ as regards amount and kind of knowledge and in ability to acquire knowledge. The linguist's audience is an adult audience with a sound knowledge of both modern theoretical linguistics and the structure of his own language, and which has at least an above average intelligence. On the contrary, the audience at which the educationist aims knows nothing about theoretical linguistics and his explicit knowledge of his own language is meagre, frequently confused and hopelessly out-of-date. Furthermore, the children who comprise this audience are still developing their ability to handle abstract concepts, while many who would be using the textbook are very limited in their ability to handle anything too abstract at all.

5.1.2 As far as circumstances are concerned, the basic difference is that the linguist operates within a very wide scope of freedom, both as to what he describes and how he describes it, whereas the educationist has, in addition to the limitations of his audience, to take into account a host of other restricting factors. In Chapter lV it was pointed out that he has to keep his eye on the timetable, which is simply too crowded to allow much time for English in general, let alone the grammatical aspect of English in particular. There is also a laid-down syllabus within whose bounds any text must operate. It is also necessary,

furthermore, to consider the prevailing 'child-centred' approach to education, which is hostile to grammar. And finally, there is the fact that the educationist, unlike the linguist, has to consider an intermediary audience - the teacher - whose attitudes and knowledge must also be taken into account when producing a text for the ultimate readers, viz the pupils; and it was pointed out in the last chapter that teachers tend to be biassed against or ignorant of certain aims in grammar teaching and have a very rudimentary and often confused knowledge of their subject.

5.2 Grammatical Descriptions

These differences result in a very different approach as regards the purpose and therefore the nature of the grammatical descriptions of a language produced by the linguist and the educationist respectively.

5.2.1 Because the linguist is operating in an academic sphere and dealing with academics, his only considerations are academic ones. It was pointed out in Chapter 11 that, since the Eighteenth Century, there has come about a change in the sphere of academic language studies. It was pointed out there that it is the liberal aim which has come to dominate the linguistic scene in recent times: linguistics has shifted away from the approach which had the welfare of the speech community in mind to an approach which is concerned with the phenomenon of language for its own sake. The reasons for doing so are academic ones, and therefore the linguist adopts this approach. Since he is dealing with an audience whose linguistic abilities are highly developed, he is not concerned whether the descriptions of a language which he produces on the basis of his interest in language for its own sake will achieve a secondary aim, viz the improvement of the linguistic skills of his readers. The linguist is no longer the expert dealing with laymen who wish to acquire the accepted mode of speech (as was the case during the Eighteenth Century), but an expert dealing with experts who know as much about the accepted mode of speech as he does but who share a common interest in the exciting phenomenon of language.

The modern linguist, then, in writing a grammar of a particular language is not concerned with providing his reader with a set of rules which could be used to improve his command of that language. His sole concern is to use the description as a way of illustrating the theory of language

he is interested in expounding. Pit Corder (1973) puts it thus:

> 'A theoretical linguist writing a grammar (or more probably a fragment of a grammatical description of a language) for other linguists, is trying to show his readers that that analysis, based upon the particular theoretical model of language he favours, reveals properties in human language, and, for that reason, in the particular language in question, which would not be revealed by some alternative and, in his eyes, inadequate theory of language structure. The object of the descriptive exercise is the evaluation of a particular linguistic theory of language.'
>
> (p. 324)

Thus Structuralist grammars of English were written to prove the superiority of the Mechanists' theory of language to that of the Traditionalists. The move to a Mentalist viewpoint then led to the data-based grammars of the Structuralists being replaced by the more abstract model-based grammars of the Transformationalists. The inclusion of the social aspects of language in the Mentalist theory has recently led to the attempt to write semantic-based Transformationalist grammars to replace the standard syntax-based ones. Each time, however, the descriptions of English produced were done so only to prove the superiority of each theory in turn.

Pit Corder points out that, because the aim of these descriptions is merely to validate a particular theory or reject some alternative one, the linguist need only describe enough of the language in question to make his point. 'It is for this reason that we do not have any comprehensive theoretical descriptions of well-known languages at the present time' (p. 325).

A further reason for the brevity and partial nature of his description is the fact that he can rely on the fact that he shares a great deal of knowledge with his audience. As Pit Corder puts it: '... if we know our audience to be specialists we freely use what the layman calls "jargon", and in consequence get our meaning across more surely and economically' (p. 323). The Transformationalist, for example, assumes that his audience knows the categories of Traditional Grammar and the phrase-structure analysis of Structural Grammar. He therefore refers to these only briefly in illustrating his revised (and, according to him, superior) approach.

The linguist, furthermore, does not have to consider whether his reader is capable of understanding his description or not - his description can therefore be as abstract as be feels it necessary to be to illustrate

His theory. The only criterion, therefore, is whether it adequately proves the validity of the theory or not.

To sum up: The only factors which the linguist has to consider are linguistic ones - his audience he takes for granted, and he is not subject to any external restrictions as to what he says or how he says it.

5.2.2 The situation of the educationist is quite different. Since he is dealing with children in an educational (as opposed to an academic) context, he is constrained both by the limitations of his audience, who are children, and the various factors which characterise an educational situation. All this affects which description he will choose and will determine the form which the chosen description will finally take in his text.

Whereas the linguist takes the liberal aim for granted and adopts the kind of liberal aim which he feels to be the most valid on academic grounds, the educationist has to ask whether, in educational terms, the liberal aim is a feasible one for schools and also which liberal approach is the best from the point of view of general educational aims. It was argued in Chapter 111 that there is, in fact, a very sound case for including the liberal aim as one of the aims for schools as well: a child is expected to learn something about his environment; this includes himself; and the most typical quality about himself as a human being is his ability to use language. It was therefore argued that one should aim, in teaching grammar, to give the child some idea of the psycho-social mechanism underlying language ability. On these grounds, rather than on the basis of an investigation merely into the structure of the language for its own sake, grammar should enjoy pride of place as a liberal study. The most recent version of the liberal aim at an academic level, therefore, is also absolutely relevant to the teaching of grammar in the high school.

If this is so, then the question as to which description to educationist ought to adopt is clearcut - the one that best describes the nature of communicative competence. And this, as as already been argued, is a TG approach modified to include the social aspects of language use. Rosenbaum (1965) maintains that this is the sole criterion for the selection of a linguistic description in schools. To him the 'most pertinent' criterion of selection is 'the validity of the proposed

linguistic descriptions'. This, however, cannot be accepted, since it does not take into account certain factors of an educational situation which makes it different from the academic situation:

As was pointed out in Chapter 1V, in view of the undeveloped linguistic skills of the audience at which the educationist directs his text and the pragmatic-creative approach of the syllabus; and in view of the fact that, contrary to Rosenbaum's claim that educational research has shown that 'instruction in grammar has little effect upon the written language skills of the pupils', grammar can (as was argued in Chapter 111) under certain circumstances serve the pragmatic aims - in view of these two considerations, the educationist must also consider a second criterion in selecting a linguistic description, viz whether it lends itself to being used by the child to improve his linguistic performance. It is, then, necessary to choose also on the basis of 'demonstrating the utility of one or the other description in the teaching of literate skills, e.g. composition' (Rosenbaum: 1965). In this respect the school textbook writer is not entirely in line with the modern linguist: he combines the aims of the latter with those of the Eighteenth Century grammarian - a fact not always realised by linguists such as Rosenbaum and others.

The question, then, which follows from this is whether TG, which is the best description to fulfil the liberal aim, is also the best one to fulfil the pragmatic aims. It was argued in Chapter 111 that experimental evidence seems to suggest that this might be the case. There it was mentioned that Bateman and Zidonis (1966) came to the conclusion that 'the study of a systematic grammar which is a theoretical model of the process of sentence production is the logical way to modify the process itself'. Eileen McGuire (1971) argues that this is to be expected, since TG 'moves with thought', unlike the static classification of Structural Grammar. Chomsky, in his 'Introduction' to Roberts's English Syntax (1964), puts forward a further argument in favour of selecting TG for the pragmatic aim:

> 'In any event, pursuit of these traditional goals of grammatical instruction should, one would suppose, be facilitated by the use of a system of grammar that expresses the underlying regularities of the language as fully and explicitly as possible.'
>
> (pp. xiv-xv)

Not only is TG more explicit, but since it is a grammar which describes the language in terms of options, it is also a grammar which by its very nature lends itself to the teaching of style in writing and appreciation of style.

Rosenbaum (1975) points out that some educators have argued that Traditional Grammar is the best description on the grounds that it is superior to both Structural and TG grammars 'because normative values are maintained in traditional grammars while they are neglected totally in other forms of linguistic description'. He refutes this claim since, as was suggested in Chapter 11, any grammar fulfils this requirement. He argues as follows:

> 'This argument becomes vacuous when we observe that normative values pertain not to a linguistic description, but to a particular language, in this case a special dialect of English, described by a linguistic description. Any form of description which it takes as its subject matter this special dialect of English can be said to be normative. Thus, normative considerations ... fail to provide a reason for introducing a specific linguistic description into the curriculum.'
>
> (p. 477)

It would seem, then, that there is a good case for selecting TG rather than Traditional or Structural Grammar as the basis of one's description to achieve both the liberal and pragmatic aims in schools. These are the only necessary criteria to decide which description as such to adopt. The other factors of the educational situation do not affect the initial decision to adopt TG in order to fulfil the aims of grammar teaching. The fact that some of the children using the grammar are not very intelligent or intellectually developed, for instance, is irrlevant. As Rosenbaum (1965) puts it:

> 'The issue is not whether the information contained in a given linguistic description can be taught and learned successfully, for surely there is no description which is so difficult that it cannot be taught and learned in some form.'
>
> (p. 468)

This confirms the now famous hypothesis of Bruner (1961) that 'any subject can be taught in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development'. Although, however, it is true that any description can be learned, it is perhaps nevertheless a pertinent question as to whether any particular description can be learned more easily than another - an important issue for the successful transfer of knowledge, as was indicated in Chapter 111, where it was argued that one reason for the failure of grammar to affect the linguistic performance of many schoolchildren is that they simply do not understand what they are being taught. When one sees the travesty of Traditional Grammar which is presented to these children (as was discussed in Chapter 1V),

one realises why there was no transfer. Structural Grammar might have improved the situation, but there is evidence that TG is easier to understand than both Traditional and Structural Grammar. Wayne C. Frederick, in an article entitled 'A Comparison of Verbal Statements, Symbolic Notation, and Figural Representation of Grammar Concepts' (Research in English, Spring 1971), describes an experiment he conducted with three groups of eighth-graders. Each was given programmed versions of five lessons on the structure of English. In one version (Verbal), the concepts were presented verbally; in the second version (Symbolic), symbolic notation was used wherever possible; and in the third version (Figural), tree diagrams were used. The tests showed that the nonverbal Symbolic and Figural lessons produced better results than the Verbal lessons. Furthermore, while higher ability pupils benefited most from all lessons, average pupils benefited only from the Figural and Symbolic lessons; and low ability pupils only from the Symbolic and Verbal approaches. The conclusion is that all benefited from the Symbolic approach, while the Verbal and Figural approaches were of use to certain groups in particular. This suggests that TG, which includes both the Symbolic and Figural elements, is the best approach, especially if it is modified to include verbal descriptions as well, to ensure better learning on the part of the heterogeneous group of pupils in the normal school.

This, however, does not mean that the whole TG apparatus can be introduced voetstoots into the school. Rosenbaum's statement above is distinctly qualified by the phrase 'in some form', which implies the possible need to adapt TG to suit the school situation. At the same time Bruner's qualifying phrase, 'in some intellectually honest form', must be borne in mind. This brings us to the dilemma of the textbook writer mentioned at the beginning of this Chapter - the dilemma of trying to adapt an academic theory to suit the circumstances in which this adaptation operates without compromising the integrity of the theory.

The task is made easier by the fact that, by virtue of the lack of knowledge on the part of his audience, the goals of the school textbook writer are not so high as those of the linguist. Pit Corder (1973)

> 'A theoretical linguist writing a grammar (or more probably a fragment of a grammatical description of a language) for other linguists, is trying to show his readers that that analysis, based upon the particular theoretical model of language he favours, reveals properties in human language, and, for that

> reason, in the particular language in question, which could not be revealed by some alternative and, in his eyes, inadequate theory of language structure. The object of the descriptive exercise is the evaluation of a particular linguistic theory.'
>
> (p. 324)

The linguist, then, is concerned with arguing with other linguists about the question as to which is the best theory of language; the educationist, on the other hand, has to survey the linguistic field (which includes both theoretical discourses and grammatical descriptions written to illustrate those theories) and then decide for his audience which is the best theory, since they do no possess any knowledge of any theory and are therefore not in a position to weigh up one theory against another. Having done this, the educationist then works on the assumption that his audience will take the theory itself for granted since they have no choice, and his concern is how he can use the theory to provide a description of English which both reveals something about communicative competence and provides a metalanguage for pragmatic purposes. The description which he produces, therefore, is not subject to the academic test as to whether it validates the theory on which it is based or not. If there is a need to adapt the description (of English, based on TG in this case) to accommodate the various factors of the educational situation, he must take care not to contradict the theory in doing so, but there is no need for his description to reveal all the properties or details of the theory, since his goals are simply not as high as those of the linguist.

The question, then, is: to what extent and in what ways does TG have to be adapted so as to accommodate the various factors of the school situation?

1. Firstly, if one takes into account the lack of knowledge of the children audience, one realises that, whereas the TG grammarian can presume a knowledge of the basic 'parts of speech', of terms like 'sentence', 'subject', 'predicate'; of the hierarchical structure of sentences - a concept not peculiar to TG - the educationist cannot do so. As was pointed out in the previous chapter, many of the more intelligent, older and more positively motivated students arriving at university have an extremely limited knowledge and understanding of the basics of grammar. A school grammar must therefore be a teaching grammar. Thus the P-rules have to be such that they provide a methodology for analysing the basic structures of sentences. This means that they have to relate more directly to surface structures - in other words, a number of transformations have to be ignored and the P-rules therefore

must become a list of possible options for the various structures that are to be found in the surface structures (or, at any rate, easily recoverable 'semi-deep' structures) of sentences. As an illustration, one may take the P-rules as presented by Fowler, in his book, An Introduction to Transformational Syntax (1971):

(i) S → NP + PredP

(ii) PredP → Aux + {V / VP / Adj / NP}

(iii) NP → Det + N

(iv) VP → V + {NP / Adj}

(p. 35)

These rules can obviously not be used to learn to identify sentence elements. For example, the child might be given a sentence such as:

John was clever.

He would not be able to use these P-rules to 'analyse' the sentence, since 'was' as an element does not appear in the rules – it is added by transformation rules. The child who does not yet know what a verb is or what an auxiliary is, cannot deal with sentences which 'contain a verb but do not contain a verb'. In other words, these more abstract rules can only follow on an initial more concrete set which teaches the basic categories and relations. The P-rules must thus be designed so as to describe a more concrete 'deep' strucutre – what might be called an 'intermediate' structure.

Furthermore, the more concrete rules have to be accompanied by a number of hints and suggested 'methods' as to how to use the rules to identify the various structures and 'parts of speech'. The P-rules, therefore, serve a double function: they help the child to analyse sentences in a more systematic way; and in the process of doing so, they suggest something of the nature of the linguist competence, which operates in terms of rules and options. In this way, the adapted TG textbook can do everything which the traditional school texts do, only it can do more and can do it in a more systematic and explicit manner.

2. Secondly, there is the lack of intellectual ability on the part of many and the fact that this audience is generally less developed as

regards abstract reasoning than the audience of the linguist. This means that, although a symbolic grammar is apparently 'easier' to understand, it cannot be too abstract. For example, it is absurd to consider that the average 14-16-year-old would be able to present us with a derivation such as the following in Fowler (1971):

(1) S
(2) NP + PredP (by rule (i))
(3) Det + N + PredP (by rule (iii))
(4) Det + N + Aux + VP (by rule (ii), second line)
(5) Det + N + Aux + V + NP (by rule (iv), first line)
(6) Det + N + Aux + V + Det + N (by rule (iii))
(7) Det + John + Aux + eat + Det + apples (lexical insertion)
(8) - (9) John + Past + eat + the + apples (Det & Aux specified)
(10) John + eat + Past + the + apples (affix-shifting)
(11) John ate the apples (morphological rules producing surface structure)

(p. 46)

And this derivation is done 'in as much detail as the discussion up to this point will allow'! Once again, the rules have to be simplified to present a simpler description of the sentence: the P-rules have to be more concrete, and there have to be fewer T-rules (i.e. some are simply to be ignored). In doing so, one is, in fact, merely doing what Fowler himself is doing at a higher level - omitting certain information for the purpose of exposition. One is presenting, for the moment, a 'mini-grammar' which can be expanded and made more abstract later.

It is sometimes argued that, if school pupils can cope with Mathematics, a highly abstract subject, then surely they ought to be able to cope with a reasonably abstract grammar. The argument, however, is fallacious from at least two points of view: firstly, because not all pupils do in fact cope with Mathematics; and secondly, because they have usually at least six periods a week to try to cope with Mathematics, as opposed to one or two for grammar.

The pupils' lesser ability also means that there must be continual revision and review: facts must be consolidated by repetition, summary and exercises.

3. Thirdly, it must be borne in mind that the timetable also does not, as has just been intimated, allow for a very detailed account of a language. It was pointed out in the last chapter that most teachers of English have only six periods of 35-40 minutes at their disposal to teach an enormous syllabus laid down by the Department of Education. This does not leave much time for grammar teaching.

4. Fourthly, the educational climate does not favour grammar; thus a grammar which is too abstract and time-consuming would not be favoured. The pragmatically-orientated approach of the syllabus, too, does not favour a grammar which is too theoretical. Furthermore, the fact that nowhere in the syllabus is there a hint that a theory of grammar should be taught means that teachers would not be willing to spend too much time on aspects that do not relate directly to surface structure.

5. Finally, the lack of training of teachers has to be taken into account in two, paradoxical, ways. It was pointed out in Chapter IV that most teachers of English at present have no knowledge of TG - nor, for that matter of Structural Grammar - whatsover. Many do not even know that there is more than one description available. All they have is a meagre, confused atheoretical knowledge of school versions of Traditional Grammar. On the other hand, what they do know is deep-set and hallowed by tradition. The result of both is that there is a need to write a grammar which is a transitional description between Traditional Grammar and TG. In this way, it will be possible for the teacher to gain some insight into TG, because he will be able to relate it to what he knows. For example, the traditional terms 'Subject' and 'Predicate' will have to be used, but care must be taken to avoid any definite confusion of structure and function. Also, it would help to use notional definitions to link up with traditional approaches. Furthermore, the problem of teachers misunderstanding certain TG terms must be investigated. For example, to the teacher a 'phrase' is a group of words that does not contain a finite verb. Therefore, to call 'John' a phrase would cause problems; the term 'Verb Phrase' would be regarded as a contradiction in terms; nor would they be able to entertain the idea of an NP containing a sentence - how can a 'phrase' contain a 'sentence' when a phrase is part of a sentence ?

It might be argued that Mathematics teachers managed to change to the 'New Maths', so why can grammar teachers not do the same ? The analogy, however, is false: firstly, there is no such person as a 'grammar teacher', partly because grammar is only a minute aspect of a language teacher's syllabus and partly because, contrary to the situation with Mathematics, language teachers are mostly not qualified in grammar; secondly, the Department of Education introduced new syllabuses for Mathematics and ran Refresher Courses for teachers, but no such move has been made as regards the 'New Grammar'. A 'new grammar' textbook at present does not operate in this favourable sort of context. So it cannot parallel the kind of textbook which was produced to introduce the 'New Maths'.

5.3 Operation Grammar

It was with this background in mind that Operation Grammar, a sample syntax grammar for 15-16-year-olds (i.e. Standard Eight, or mid-way through high school), was compiled. The basic approach is to adapt TG by making it more concrete and by incorporating some terms from Traditional Grammar.

The first task was to decide which TG approach to use as a basis. It was pointed out in Chapter 11 that Chomsky's approach, though widely accepted, is not the final word on TG. Chomsky, purely psychological in his approach, stressed that TG was non-contextual, neutral as regards the speaker and not concerned with the social aspects of language. Post-Chomsky developments, on the other hand, have tended to emphasise these, and it was pointed out earlier that this is also necessary in the school. These developments have brought about major modifications to Chomsky's Aspects-approach. The problem, however, is that this approach exists only really in the form of theoretical expositions; there are no definite descriptions of English based on this approach, and those that are available are even more abstract than the most abstract Aspects-versions of TG. The textbook writer, therefore, is forced to fall back on the texts available based on the Aspects-approach. But even here there are problems: firstly, as was mentioned earlier, even these are not very detailed; and secondly, as Fowler (1971) has pointed out, although the general framework of this approach has been established, there are many different versions of English Grammar based on this framework - versions which differ as regards details such as

terminology and re-write rules. Thus the educational author has to draw up a description of English based on the various Aspects-orientated grammars of English and then modify them to accommodate the social and educational aspects.

It was decided in this case to base the text on the various texts of Paul Roberts – English Sentences (1962), English Syntax (1964) and the Roberts English Series (1967) – modified to incorporate both Traditional elements and more recent developments of TG.

The overall structure of the text is as follows:

Section 1: Definition of 'Grammar' (Chapter One)
Section 11: Sentence-rules:
(a) Kernel rules (Chapters Two – Ten)
(b) Transformational rules (Chapters Eleven – Thirteen)

Chapter One introduces the idea of 'grammar' as a theory of language, as opposed to the traditional textbook tendency to portray it as 'a thing of shreds and patches', as Mittins aptly puts it. The particular theory which it adopts is one which is in keeping with Brengelman's account of the basic requirements for a school grammar:

> 'It seems clear that if grammar is to have the relevance which can justify including it in the lower school curriculum, then it must be taught as a human subject – a subject which sheds light not only on sentences but on the human mind and the behaviour of human beings as members of society.'
>
> (1970, p. 75)

The chapter aims to cast grammar in the light of a psycho-social theory that makes the child realise that the various terms and structures which will be dealt with in due course are not merely peculiar phenomena conjured up by educationists to make his (the child's) life miserable, but the means of describing the concepts and rules that actually exist in his mind, enabling him to use his language. In this way, it is hoped, his curiosity will be aroused both about the wonder of sentence-production and the ubiquity of language – about the essential role it plays in making us human and in making human social life possible. By indicating that the knowledge about his language which he acquires by the study of grammar will also be of use to him, it is intended that

he will see the study of grammar both as a subject fascinating in its own right and as something useful to him in his future, both as an individual and as a member of society.

The chapter begins inductively in order that he can be brought to realise that he does, in fact, possess a 'knowledge' of his language – something which the native speaker tends to forget so easily. He is thus brought to the position where he realises that in studying grammar he is actually studying himself.

In general, then, this chapter aims to inculcate what Oosthuizen (1971) calls a sense of 'bewondering', so that the child will come to accept that there is a liberal aim for studying grammar. This sense of awe is also likely to influence his attitude towards his own linguistic performance, partly because he realises that this is a talent not to be taken lightly, and partly because he realises that, no matter how poor his linguistic ability may be, it is nevertheless a miraculous talent which he possesses– and this inspires confidence in him when he comes to express himself. The acceptance of the liberal aim can in this way indirectly further the pragmatic aims as well.

Chapter Two starts the investigation into the nature of this intuitive knowledge. It points out the 'creative' aspect of language and concludes therefore that sentence-production cannot be based on rote-recall but must be based on the knowledge of units and rules as to how to combine these units to produce innumerable sentences. Following TG, the stress is placed on the sentence rather than the word. The latter, rather than the morpheme, is taken for the moment as the smallest unit. Once again, the inductive approach is used to draw this information from the child to make him realise the existential quality of the information.

Chapter Three introduces the idea of a hierarchical arrangement of words in sentences by discussing the concept of word-grouping; the ordering of words and word-groups; and the filing of words into classes according to the way they function in word-groups. The idea that what is being described is an explicit account of the child's linguistic intuition is once again reinforced in this chapter. The traditional notions of 'parts of speech' and 'sentence analysis' are thus given a new orientation in terms of the psychological approach of TG.

Chapter Four begins the study of the 'kernel' sentence, which is taken to be that kind of sentence which is derived by the application of the 'kernel' rules (i.e. more concrete P-rules) only. In other words, for convenience' sake and to accommodate the various educational factors mentioned earlier, the T-rules which are actually necessary to generate these sentences are ignored. The two major word-groups are now given labels - 'Subject' and 'predicate'. In order to avoid an obvious confusion of structure and function, it is said that the sentence 'consists of a structure functioning as Subject and a structure functioning as Predicate' (p. 15) rather than that a sentence consists of two structures called the Subject and the Predicate respectively. Procedures are given to analyse the sentence into the two main parts, and these are related to the notional definitions given of these two parts both to fit in with Traditional Grammar and to link syntax with meaning. The Exercises on this Chapter are designed to relate the formal grammar to the process of linguistic development (in terms of the pragmatic aims) - vocabulary enrichment, proverbial knowledge, sentence composing. However, unlike traditional textbooks, Operation Grammar links thse directly to the grammatical description.

Chapters Five and Six gradually build up a (restricted) picture of the various structures that function as Subject. The term 'cluster' is introduced in place of 'phrase' to prevent the clash between TG and Traditional meanings of the term 'phrase'. The approach is once again basically inductive, and the picture is built up step-by-step rather than by confronting the child with a detailed description at the beginning. The 're-write' rules are presented less abstractly than is customary in TG both so as to simplify them and to emphasise the fact that they represent sets of options. All the time, too, the procedure for analysing the subject-structures is gradually expanded in direct relation to the expansion of the re-write rules. The Exercises relate these formal facts to language variation both on social and stylistic grounds - an introduction to a study which will be tackled more systematically in the follow-up Standard Nine and Ten books. The stylistic exercises also link up the text with 'creative writing', that aspect of English so favoured by current educational philosophies and syllabuses.

Chapters Seven and Eight set about describing the structures that function as Predicate in very much the same way. The various confusions of traditional texts mentioned in Chapter lV are eradicated by presenting a more simplified and systematic picture. Once again, the description is related directly to meaning and style and procedures for analysing the Predicate-structures are gradually given in relation to the options.

Chapter Nine summarises the chapters on Subject and Predicate and introduces further kinds of adverbial and adjectival clusters. This chapter concludes the second section of the text, which is concerned with kernel rules.

Chapter Ten discusses the idea of 'transformation' of underlying kernel structures into transformation sentences. Chapters Eleven and Twelve deal with the transformation of the kernel into the various kinds of non-kernel simple sentences - statement, questions, commands and exclamations. Throughout the idea of an underlying 'deep' structure is stressed, so that the various kinds of non-kernel simple sentences are all related to the kernel sentence. In this way a more coherent picture is built up than is normally the case in traditional school texts. The child is, thus, all the way along, able to see the description as a developing theory of language rather than a hodgepodge of terms and structures. Stylistic and situational reasons for choices of the various transforms are also suggested in the exercises.

Chapter Thirteen deals with the combination of simple sentences, giving the basic notions and reasons for and against combining. It also offers some hints on typical grammatical and stylistic 'errors' to be avoided. This chapter is meant to serve as an introduction to a more detailed study of non-simple sentences in later years.

Throughout the text, there has been an attempt to relate structures to meaning and options to style as a preparation for a later more systematic discussion of language variation. 'Tree diagrams' have been used to illustrate the structure of sentences and have been related each time both to the re-write rules and the procedures of analysing sentences.

The syntax presented here naturally 'leaks', to use Sapir's term. This is more obvious than in the case of traditional texts, where gaps are camouflaged in cloudy verbal formulations. Operation Grammar makes no pretence of being complete - it is meant to be a very restricted description, because only in this way can it hope to illustrate some of the choices which the language provides for its speakers without becoming bogged down in minutiae.

5.4 Conclusion

One final point here is that, no matter how clear and/or stimulating a textbook may be, it must be borne in mind that a textbook is only an aid to the teacher; in the final analysis, the success of the textbook will depend to a large extent on the way it is used by the teacher. For example, he must be prepared to adapt it to suit his particular pupils - he might add to the theoretical aspects specifically designed to promote the liberal aim for brighter pupils with a sound command of English, while he might ignore certain exercises calculated to improve the child's linguistic abilities; and vice versa for duller pupils.

Furthermore, as regards the pragmatic aims it must be remembered that, whereas the liberal aim is achieved only by the teaching of English grammar, the pragmatic aim is a more general aim, which is achieved not only by grammar but also by the rest of the English syllabus - and, for that matter, by the teachers of other subjects. Thus the success of grammar in general or of a particular grammar text cannot, from a pragmatic point of view, be judged by the degree to which the linguistic performance of the pupils using the text improves during the time that they use it, for the development of the child's linguistic abilities depends also on the nature of literature and composition teaching and the extent to which teachers of other subjects are prepared to consider it their task as well to develop these skills.

It is hoped that Operation Grammar will, in present circumstances, make it easier for the teacher to achieve the aims of grammar teaching. If, in due course, there is an official move to introduce more modern approaches, a transitional text such as this could then be revised to be more ambitious and adventurous in the description of English with which it provides the teacher to aid him in his attempt to achieve these aims.

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APPENDIX A

ISEA QUESTIONNAIRE 1973

The Teaching of English Grammar
in Cape Senior Schools

RHODES UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE FOR THE STUDY OF ENGLISH IN AFRICA

Questionnaire

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR IN CAPE SENIOR SCHOOLS

The Institute for the Study of English in Africa would be grateful for your advice and co-operation in a research project on the teaching of English Grammar in the Senior School.

We are sending this questionnaire to heads of Departments of English in a large number of schools. We realise the limitations of questionnaires; at the same time it is vital to explore the experience and opinions of teachers of English in this matter. Consequently, we should be most grateful for your comments and responses. If you need more space for comments than we can provide on this form, please add notes or comments on a separate sheet.

This questionnaire is circulated with the approval of the Cape Education Department.

Question 0 1 is optional. However, all responses will be treated as confidential and in no circumstances will the Institute divulge the source of any individual opinion.

On the completion of this investigation, a synopsis of the findings will be mailed to all teachers who completed the questionnaire.

We enclose an addressed reply-paid envelope. Since full analysis of the questionnaire will take a considerable time, we should be most grateful if you would help us by completing and returning your questionnaire as soon as possible. It would greatly assist our analysis if all replies could be returned by 8th June, 1973.

M. G. VENTER

A. DE VILLIERS
Director, Institute for the Study
of English in Africa.

QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A : Personal Information

01 SURNAME:____________________ INITIALS: ________________

02 QUALIFICATIONS: (a) Academic (e.g. B.A.):____________________

(b) Professional (e.g. U.E.D.):________________

03 (a) DEGREE COURSES IN ENGLISH (e.g. 'English II'):______________

(b) Please state whether your University English Courses included the study of English Grammar or not (cross the appropriate box):

EXTENSIVELY	SUPERFICIALLY	NOT AT ALL

04 TEACHING EXPERIENCE: __________ years.

05 MATRICULATION or equivalent examination written by your pupils. (Please cross the appropriate box):

Cape Senior Certificate	
National Senior Certificate	
Joint Matriculation Board	

SECTION B : The Teaching of English Grammar

1 TIMETABLE:

(a) A timetable period at your school consists of __________ minutes.

(b) Please indicate the average number of periods per week for English for your Standard VIII pupils. Even a rough indication of the allocation of time to different sections of the work would be helpful.

SECTION	Oral	Composition/ Creative Writing	Literature	Formal Grammar*	Other Lang. work**	TOTAL periods
PERIODS						

*e.g. parts of speech, analysis, vocabulary, etc.

**e.g. comprehension, precis, etc.

COMMENTS: ______________________________________

2 TEXTBOOKS:

(a) Please identify (in the table below) the series of English Language textbooks used in your school.

(b) Please state whether you use this/these series because of:

(i) the formal grammar content;

(ii) the other language contents.

(Fill in either i or ii in the 'reason' column).

(c) In the column labelled 'Rating', please rate the formal grammar content of this/these series as either A (Excellent); B (Satisfactory); C (Fairly satisfactory); D (Unsatisfactory).

Author(s)	Title	Publisher	Reason	Rating [Formal Grammar Section only]

COMMENTS: ______________________________

3 REFERENCE WORKS:

Please list up to five reference works (grammars, handbooks of usage, etc.) which you yourself consult in teaching English Grammar:

Author(s)	Title	Publisher	Date

COMMENTS: ______________________________

4 SYLLABUSES:

(a) Responses. Which sections of the syllabus do you and your pupils generally like best? Please number the boxes below, starting with (1) to show the most popular section:

SECTIONS	Oral	Composition/ Creative Writing	Literature	Formal Grammar	Other Language Work
Your Ranking					
Pupils' Ranking					

COMMENTS: ______________________________

____

____

(b) Improvements. What more could be done to stimulate pupils to take an informed interest in their own language? ______________________________

____

____

(c) Allocation. Do you think there should be more formal grammar in the syllabus? (Please cross the appropriate boxes):

	Yes	No
(i) Present Syllabus		
(ii) New Syllabus (for 1974) Stds. V - VIII		

COMMENTS: ______________________________

____

(d) Quality. How would you rank the formal grammar section of the syllabus? (Please cross the appropriate boxes):

	Present Syllabus	New Syllabus
Excellent		
Satisfactory		
Fairly satisfactory		
Unsatisfactory		

COMMENTS: ______________________________

____

____

(e) Comparison. How would you compare the formal grammar section of the new syllabus with that of the present one? (Please cross the appropriate box):

Very much better	
Better	
No different	
Worse	
Very much worse	

5 EXTERNAL EXAMINATIONS:

(a) To what extent would you say the external English Language Paper reflects the syllabus? (Please cross the appropriate box):

Well	
More than adequately	
Adequately	
Less than adequately	
Unsatisfactorily	

COMMENTS: ______________________________

____

____

(b) The Language Paper often includes questions of the following type:

1. Comprehension test.
2. Analysis of a sentence into clauses.
3. Parts of speech and their functions.
4. Paraphrasing.
5. Precis.
6. Correction of faulty sentences.
7. Vocabulary items (choice of correct word, explanation of difficult words, word formation).
8. Synthesis of sentences.
9. Punctuation.
10. Direct and Indirect Speech.
11. Stylistic questions (e.g. mood of poem, stylistic choice and effectiveness of words and phrases, etc.)

(i) Please group these types of questions into the four categories below. (In the appropriate box, write the number of each question from the list):

RATING	TYPES OF QUESTION
Very important	
Important	
Unimportant	
Undecided	

COMMENTS: ____________________

____

(ii) If possible, please write down which you consider the most important and the least important type of question. Please limit these ratings to one type of question each:

(a) The most important	
(b) The least important	

6 CONCLUSIONS:

(a) Do you think English Grammar should be taught at all in the Senior School? (Please cross the appropriate box):

YES	NO

(b) If your answer to 6(a) is NO, can you give reasons?

____

____

(c) If your answer is YES, which of the following reasons would you give in support of your response? (Please cross the appropriate box. If you choose more than one reason, please number, rather than cross, the boxes in order of importance):

(i) To teach the pupil to express himself correctly	
(ii) To give the pupil an insight into the structure of the language	
(iii) For practice in reasoning or logical thinking	
(iv) Other reasons (Please specify)	

COMMENTS: ____________________

____

ANALYSIS OF QUESTIONNAIRE

1: OBJECTIVES

The objectives of the investigation were to assess:

(a) the qualifications of teachers as regards English Grammar;

(b) the amount of time devoted to the teaching of English Grammar;

(c) teachers' views as regards:

(i) textbooks and reference books;

(ii) syllabuses;

(iii) examinations;

(iv) the aims of grammar teaching.

11: SECTION A: RESPONDENTS

Printed questionnaires were posted at the beginning of June 1973 to teachers of English (both Higher and Standard Grade) at 273 high schools in the Cape Province. Altogether 80 were returned - 61 Higher Grade and 19 Standard Grade. Only the 61 Higher Grade papers were analysed. Responses to questions concerning qualifications and experiences were as follows:

TABLE 1 N = 61

Q2a: ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS	
M.A. (not necessarily in English)	4
Honours (not necessarily in English)	6
B.A.	48
No Degree	0
No Response	3
TOTAL	61

TABLE 2 N = 61

Q2a: DEGREE COURSES IN ENGLISH	
English V (M.A.)	2
English 1V (Honours)	4
English 111	44
English 11	5
English 1	6
No Degree Course	0
TOTAL	61

TABLE 3 N = 61

Q3b: EXTENT TO WHICH DEGREE COURSES INCLUDED GRAMMAR	
Extensively	1
Superficially	24
Not at all	34
No Response	2
TOTAL	61

TABLE 4 N = 61

Q2b: PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATION	
D.Ed.	1
M.Ed.	0
B.Ed.	8
Secondary Teachers' Diploma	50
Lower Secondary Teachers' Diploma	2
TOTAL	61

COMMENTS: These figures indicate that the majority of English teachers have a Bachelor's Degree and that most of their degrees include at least a third-year qualificiation in English. However, very few of these English courses include much grammar: only 1 studied grammar extensively, while more than half studied no grammar at all. It would seem then that, while most teachers have a sound background in English literature, there are very few who have a corresponding background in English Grammar. A number of respondents mentioned that they had studied Latin Grammar at school. Thus, with most English teachers, it seems that the only basis on which they teach English Grammar is the Latin and/or English Grammar they themselves were taught at school.

Furthermore, although nearly all had a diploma in high school teaching, it is clear from their comments that these diploma courses included very little in the way of instruction in the teaching of English generally or grammar more particularly. The following are the comments of two of the respondents on this matter:

> '... teacher-training was to my mind inadequate in that there was not nearly enough preparation for the practical problems of teaching English. I'm still discovering what I need to know!'

> 'I feel that practical help at University level for the teacher of English should be given. Teaching methods which are up to date should be stressed and not left for the teacher to try out and discover for himself while teaching. Naturally he will evolve his own methods, but there should be some guide-line from an experienced teacher of English. There seems to be very little assistance at this level in the U.E.D. year ...'

TABLE 5 N = 61

04: TEACHING EXPERIENCE	
Experience in years	Number of teachers
0 – 3	13
4 – 6	8
7 – 9	4
10 – 12	13
13 – 15	2
16 – 18	5
19 – 21	2
22 – 30	8
31+	4
No Response	2
TOTAL	61

COMMENTS: Teaching experience ranged from half a year to 45 years. About half the teachers had fewer than 10 years' experience and the other half more than 10. Our statistics are thus based on a fairly wide spread of differences in age and attitudes.

111: SECTION B: THE TEACHING OF GRAMMAR

2. TEXTBOOKS

TABLE 6 N = 61

2: TEXTBOOKS FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE

The average number of texts used in a school was two, although the range varied from 0 to five. Altogether 27 different titles were listed. The most popular texts, together with their ratings and the reasons for their selection were:

Author & Title	Users	Reasons			Rating of Formal Gram.			
		i	ii	i&ii	A	B	C	D
Fletcher & Scales: High School English	23	16	2	3	1	15	5	4
Lennox-Short: The Art of English	24	6	15	5	3	11	4	6
Rumboll & Walker: Comprehensive English Practice	20	1	14	3	3	6	11	1
Coetzer & Vivier: High Grade English Course	10	8	2	0	0	4	4	1

i = Formal Grammar
ii = Other Language Work

A = Excellent; B = Satisfactory;
C = Fairly satisfactory;
D = Unsatisfactory.

<u>COMMENTS</u>: The most popular textbook chosen for formal grammar is by far Fletcher & Scoales - Coetzer & Vivier is the only other text chosen for this reason. The reason for this is that there are no other texts that deal with formal grammar in any detail or in a systematic manner. As one teacher put it:

> 'Modern Language Textbooks contain very little in the way of formal grammar.'

What formal grammar there is, is scattered in bits and pieces throughout the book. Writing of Lennox-Short in particular, one teacher remarked:

> 'The grammar is there, but haphazardly set out.'

It was also felt that these books do not <u>teach</u>. One teacher, commenting on Rumboll & Walker, had this to say:

> 'Not enough help in formal grammar, i.e. plain explanation. The book does not TEACH; it stimulates - very much.'

Another teacher spelt out this problem in greater detail:

> 'Most available /Modern/ books do not give enough graded exercises to lead the pupils from the basic to the more complex as their grasp and knowledge of the language increases.'

Yet, even those who chose Fletcher & Scoales and Coetzer & Vivier for formal grammar are not entirely happy with the formal grammar content of these books: as regards the former, most gave only an S(satisfactory) rating to the formal grammar content, while a third gave below an S; as regards the latter, half gave only a C or D rating. There are a number of reasons for this. It was suggested by some that these books do <u>not</u> stimulate, as do the more recent ones. Another complaint was that they are <u>too</u> detailed. One remark concerning Coetzer & Vivier in particular was:

> 'I do not feel a knowledge of such peculiarities as factitive verbs etc. worth teaching and these are concentrated on in Coetzer's 9 & 10 grammar book.'

Many of the more experienced teachers had resorted to giving their pupils their own notes and exercises. This, however, as one teacher pointed out, takes time:

> 'Writing out (even with an overhead projector) or dictating exercises which are appropriate is time consuming when there is a syllabus to be completed in a limited time.'

The same applies to roneoed notes, which many handed out to their pupils. Another complaint about the older books was their lack of awareness of modern grammars. One teacher felt that grammar teaching 'should be brought in line with modern linguistics', and complained that most current texts is use 'do not reflect the findings of modern linguistics'. As a result 'grammar is treated on traditional lines, inspired by the study of Greek and

Latin'. The old books, thus, are not stimulating enough, have too much detail and are out-of-date.

It was felt that modern texts were adequate for general language work but not for grammar. The older texts, on the other hand, were better for grammar - though not entirely satisfactory - but not adequate for general language work. The suggestion was therefore made that the modern texts be used for general language work and be supplemented by a separate grammar text that would combine with best of the old and the new texts - it must be stimulating and not too detailed; it must teach; and must be up-to-date.

3. REFERENCE BOOKS

TABLE 7 N = 61

3: REFERENCE BOOKS CONSULTED BY TEACHERS	
Altogether 54 different reference books were cited. The average number used was three, although there were a considerable number who used only one, while nine said they used none. Those used by three or more teachers were:	
Fowler: Modern English Usage	15
Rumboll & Walker: Comprehensive English Practice	5
Lennox-Short: The Art of English	5
Best: The Students' Companion	5
Fletcher & Scoales: High School English	5
Partridge: Usage and Abusage	4
Fowler: The King's English	3
Davies & Davies: English Test Papers for Today	3
Tyfield: English, the Living Language	3
Benyon & Broster: Operations in Language & Style	3
Gower: The Complete Plain Words	3

COMMENTS: There are two points that can be noted here:

(a) Firstly, as regards the number of references consulted: there are a considerable number of teachers who use very few or no references at all. These were mainly the more experienced teachers, many of whom felt that they no longer needed to refer to anything.

(b) Secondly: as regards the kind of references used: it can be seen that, except for Rumboll & Walker (which contains a small linguistic section), not one of these texts makes any reference to modern Linguistics. There were two individuals who cited Roberts's English Series and Branford's Elements of English respectively - but these were the exceptions.

The conclusion one must draw from this is that this group of teachers makes virtually no use of insights from modern linguistics. Probably one of the most important reasons for this is that, whereas in other subjects the authorities have, through syllabuses, examinations, refresher courses and textbooks, forced teachers to update their knowledge and approach to their subjects, there has been no such official move in the field of English Grammar. If one takes into account the complaint on the part of a number of teachers that modern language textbooks do not reflect modern linguistics, it would seem that some teachers are keen to bring themselves up-to-date but feel that they cannot do this without a textbook that adapts modern ideas for use in schools.

4. <u>SYLLABUSES</u>

TABLE 8 N = 61

4a: TEACHERS' PREFERENCES					
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th
Oral	6	9	4	4	1
Composition	3	5	10	4	3
Literature	15	6	2	0	0
Formal Grammar	0	5	5	8	6
Other Language Work	1	11	3	5	9

<u>COMMENTS</u>: It is clear from this that literature is the aspect of English which by far the majority of teachers like teaching most; by contrast formal grammar is clearly the aspect liked the least; only one rated it first. One teacher summed up his attitude with the word 'Yech!' There were, however, a few teachers who remarked that they liked all aspects, and therefore could not answer the question.

TABLE 9 N = 61

4a: PUPILS' PREFERENCES					
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th
Oral	6	7	2	1	4
Composition	3	13	17	12	8
Literature	32	10	10	1	0
Formal Grammar	1	4	8	14	2[illegible]
Other Language Work	0	8	9	20	9

<u>COMMENTS</u>: Since the rating here was done by teachers, it is not necessarily accurate. However, if one takes it as reasonably accurate, one sees that the pupils' views concur with those of their teachers - which is not surprising, of course. One teacher summed up pupils' attitudes

as follows:

> 'I feel a large percentage of our pupils draw down a kind of psychological blind in any grammar period.'

Various teachers tried to suggest reasons for this situation. Some felt that it depended on the child's intelligence as to whether he enjoyed grammar or not. They maintained that 'only the most intelligent pupils really like formal grammar' - i.e. the pupil that also enjoys Mathematics, Latin and Science. They felt that grammar was too abstract for the dull child. On the other hand, there were those who averred that it was often the unintelligent child that liked grammar because it was more 'definite' than literature and gave him something to 'learn' for the examinations. It would seem, then, that all children potentially can enjoy grammar. The question therefore still remains: why do so many dislike it? Some suggested that the intelligent child frequently became bored because of the amount of repetition that was necessary for the benefit of the unintelligent children in the class. On the other hand, it was felt that the unintelligent child lost interest because there was not enough repetition - i.e. the grammar was taught too quickly and too abstractly. The fault, therefore, would seem to lie not with the subject but with the teaching of the subject.

TABLE 10 N = 61

4b: AMOUNT OF FORMAL GRAMMAR IN SYLLABUSES				
Q: More formal grammar ?	A: YES	NO	N.R.	TOTAL
1. pre-1973 syllabus	4	44	13	61
2. 1973 syllabus	8	44	9	61

TABLE 11 N = 61

4d: QUALITY OF FORMAL GRAMMAR IN SYLLABUSES		
	Pre-1973 Syllabus	1973 Syllabus
Excellent	2	6
Satisfactory	21	28
Fairly Satisfactory	27	9
Unsatisfactory	11	2
No Response	0	16
TOTAL	61	61

TABLE 12 N = 61

4c: COMPARISON BETWEEN OLD AND NEW SYLLABUSES	
Q: How would you compare the formal grammar section of the new syllabus with that of the present one ?	
Very much better	4
Better	36
No different	8
Worse	3
Very much worse	0
No Response	10
TOTAL	61

COMMENTS: A number of teachers said that they could not answer these questions as they had not yet had enough time to study the new syllabuses. Table 10 makes it quite clear that teachers generally do not want more formal grammar in the syllabuses; neither the question, however, nor the comments indicates whether they would like less or not. The main reason given for not wanting more was that there is simply no time to cope with more. Tables 11 & 12 indicate that teachers on the whole prefer the formal grammar content of the new syllabus to that of the old, and most of them feel that the content of the new is 'satisfactory'. Among the reasons given for the preference were the fact that there was less emphasis on detail; that the stress was on synthesis rather than analysis; and that it recommended a contextual approach. On the other hand, there was strong opposition from a number to all three of these aspects. As regards detail, a few teachers, though pleased that the new syllabus did not place so much stress on unnecessary detail (e.g. ('factitive verbs'), felt that it was too vague as regards detail. One teacher remarked as follows:

> 'The new syllabus is too vague with regard to formal grammar requirements. For instance, is a knowledge of the cases of nouns required? Should gender, possessive case etc. be dealt with in grammar?'

The 1973 syllabus's injunction that formal analysis is not required led one teacher to remark: 'I like the emphasis on Synthesis rather than Analysis, although some Analysis will have to be taught.' Another teacher 'deplored' the absence of analysis in the new syllabus. As regards the contextual approach, and especially the oral contextual approach, the following comment sums up a few teachers' attitudes:

> 'I do not agree that everything can be taught in context. There must be separate exercises - and they must be written work. Things done orally simply do not STICK as they should.'

5. EXAMINATIONS

TABLE 13 N = 61

5a: HOW THE EXTERNAL LANGUAGE PAPER REFLECTS THE SYLLABUS	
Well	3
More than adequately	6
Adequately	31
Less than adequately	9
Unsatisfactorily	
No Response	
TOTAL	61

TABLE 14 N = 61

5b: RATINGS OF KINDS OF QUESTIONS

	Very important	Important	Unimportant	Undecided
Comprehension	46	9	0	0
Analysis	6	19	24	2
Parts of Speech	7	21	13	12
Paraphrasing	15	23	6	6
Precis	27	22	2	2
Correction of errors	15	20	5	5
Vocabulary	25	28	2	2
Synthesis	13	22	2	6
Punctuation	15	23	8	5
Direct & Indirect Speech	7	30	14	4
Stylistic Questions	27	15	5	5

TABLE 15 N = 61

5c: RATINGS OF KINDS OF QUESTIONS

	Most important	Least important
Comprehension	34	0
Analysis	0	14
Parts of Speech	0	5
Paraphrasing	0	3
Precis	3	1
Correction of errors	3	3
Vocabulary	0	1
Synthesis	1	0
Punctuation	0	6
Direct & Indirect Speech	0	5
Stylistic Questions	5	5

COMMENTS: According to Table 13, teachers are generally happy that the language paper adequately reflects the syllabus. Tables 14 & 15 show that comprehension is by far regarded as the most important type of question in the language paper. Informal language questions (e.g. precis, paraphrasing, direct & indirect speech) are generally also rated high. As regards formal grammar, there seem to be two groups of questions - one favoured and the other not:

Favoured: Vocabulary, synthesis, stylistic questions, correction of errors.

Not favoured: Analysis, parts of speech.

What is not clear is how, if analysis and parts of speech are not taught and adequately examined, synthesis is meant to be taught and on what basis stylistic questions and correction of errors are to be based.

TABLE 16 N = 61

SHOULD ENGLISH GRAMMAR BE TAUGHT ?	
Yes	51
No	4
N.R.	6
TOTAL	61

TABLE 17 N = 61

WHY SHOULD IT BE TAUGHT ?			
	1st	2nd	3rd
To teach the pupil to express himself correctly	23	10	5
To give the pupil an insight into the structure of his language	7	14	16
For practice in reasoning or logical thinking	2	3	5

COMMENTS:
Tables 16 & 17 show that teachers generally feel that grammar should be taught, and that the main reason for doing so is to help the child to express himself correctly. In fact, it can be said that they regard this as the only reason, since most in their comments indicated that they saw the second reason simply as a means to achieving the others - i.e. they did not interpret it as meaning 'to give the pupil an insight into the structure of his language for its own sake'. Grammar is thus seen purely as a means to an end.

APPENDIX B

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
OF THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE

Syllabus for English
First Language, Higher Grade
(Junior Secondary Course)

JUNIOR SECONDARY COURSE: SYLLABUS FOR ENGLISH (FIRST LANGUAGE)

1. GENERAL AIMS

(a) To promote the pupil's ability to communicate confidently and effectively;

(b) to promote the pupil's intellectual, emotional and social development;

(c) to extend his ability to observe, to discriminate and to arrange his thoughts coherently;

(d) to help him understand himself and others in order that he may live more fully, happily and responsibly.

The relationship between a child's linguistic skill and his personal development is a unique one. The teacher of English contributes to a process that begins in infancy and continues throughout life. His work is not to be thought of merely as a series of unrelated classroom exercises; it is rather the creating of opportunities for the extension and enrichment of experience.

2. THE SYLLABUS

The syllabus is set out under the following headings:

(A) Spoken English

(B) Reading

(C) Written English

Note: A study of language in action should form an integral part of English teaching to the end that the pupil may speak and write more effectively and appreciate literature more fully.

For convenience' sake, the syllabus is presented under three headings although in practice the work must be integrated. The teacher should be free to use the periods allocated to English in a flexible manner, provided that each section receives regular attention.

The/..........

The three divisions in the syllabus may be regarded as the areas in which the general aims can be promoted. Methods which conflict with the general aims should not be used. At all levels and in all areas of the work enjoyment and fulfilment must be the aim.

STANDARD 5

A. Spoken English

(a) Aims

1. To train the pupil to listen and to speak courteously;

2. to develop in him a readiness and an ability to consider new ideas and other points of view;

3. to teach him to speak fluently, clearly and with ease in order that he may acquire poise and confidence;

4. to develop in him the ability to convey his observations and thoughts in an orderly and convincing manner.

(b) Oral activity includes

1. conversation;
(It is important to remember that spontaneous and incidental conversation is a profitable language activity.)

2. activities to stimulate the imagination;
(e.g. audio-visual stimuli, language games.)

3. talks on a variety of topics of local, general and personal interest and significance, together with questioning and discussion;

4. discussion, with demonstration, of personal interests and hobbies;

5. discussion arising from what has been read;

6. discussion of topics based on other subjects studied by the pupil;

7. group discussion of a topic based on a centre of interest;

8./.......

8. the reading aloud and discussion of prose and poetry;

9. dramatic activities;
(e.g. charades, improvisation, story-telling and play-making.)

10. exercise in listening-comprehension involving recall, span of attention, interpretation, and a sensitive and perceptive response to tone, style, feeling and intention;

11. training in critical and selective listening.

<u>Note</u>: (1) All the above should, as far as possible, be group activities in order that as many pupils as possible may take part. The training of pupils in group techniques is essential.

(2) Pupils should be made aware of the social aspects and functions of spoken English. One cannot prescribe in the matter of accent, e.g. racial or regional. Pupils should be led to see that some ways of speaking and/or word usage are more acceptable than others according to circumstances.

(3) It is essential to bear in mind that spoken communication should be purposefully motivated. The pupil must not only know the reason for communicating but also have something to communicate.

B. <u>Reading</u>

(a) Aims

1. To take cognizance of levels of reading and to cater for them;

2. to continue developing the pupil's skill and technique in reading;

3. to develop study skills;
(e.g. skimming, cursory and intensive reading; reviewing what has been read; research work in the library and the use of books of reference,

e.g./......

e.g. encyclopaedias, telephone directories, dictionaries, time-tables; discouraging mere transcription.)

4. to encourage reading for enjoyment;

5. to encourage reading for information;

6. to introduce the pupil to some critical study of literature suitable to his stage of development.

(b) Activities

1. In addition to the books dealt with in the Reading Programme (See (c) "The Study of Literature"), supplementary reading material of all kinds should be provided for the pupil to read for his enrichment.

2. Considerable attention should be given to the reading aloud and the discussion of poetry and prose.

   Note: Few activities can be more valuable or stimulating than the skilful reading aloud by the teacher from the works that he and the pupils enjoy.

   Teachers are urged to avail themselves of the many excellent recordings now available.

3. Emphasis on interpretation and understanding should characterize all reading activities other than those whose aim is purely enjoyment. In addition, comprehension exercises may be used to stress the need for accuracy in silent reading, and to reveal the degree of understanding of what has been read. As pupils mature, questions should be directed less at literal facts and more at implied meaning, tone and inference.

(c) The Study of Literature

The prescribed Reading Programme must be followed. It consists of

1./............

1. a one-act play;

2. a minimum of 15 poems of suitable variety, length and degree of difficulty chosen by the school itself from a prescribed anthology of poetry;

3. a novel;

4. a non-fiction work (biography or travel or natural history).

In addition to being guided through this programme, the pupil should be encouraged to read at the highest level at which he can respond with enthusiasm and sincerity and above all with understanding and enjoyment.

C. Written English

(a) Aims

1. To train the pupil to record clearly and correctly what he observes, knows, thinks and feels;

2. to teach him how to broaden his thinking;

3. to provide stimuli which will lead to the writing of imaginative prose and poetry.

(b) Written activity includes

1. the writing of narratives and short stories;

2. descriptive and subjective writing;

3. the writing of poetry;

4. practice in factual communication through the writing of diaries, reports, instructions and summaries;

5. the writing of dialogue and playlets;

6. training the pupil how to fill in forms;

7. the writing of informal letters.

Note: (1) Written English should be in a form appropriate to the topic, to the writer's intention and to the reader he has in mind.

(2) Literature and/or topics of general interest and immediate significance can provide stimuli for the pupil's writing.

(3) The pupil should be encouraged to read aloud and evaluate what he and his fellow pupils have written.

(4) It is essential to bear in mind that written communication should be purposefully motivated. The pupil must not only know the reason for communicating but also have something to communicate.

Note: Language Study

A study of language in action should form an integral part of English teaching to the end that the pupil may speak and write more effectively and appreciate literature more fully.

Guidance and instruction in sound English usage and sentence structure should be related to written and spoken activity in English. They should be related, where necessary, to the pupil's needs as revealed in his actual writing and speaking, and should include

(1) punctuation and spelling;

(2) a knowledge of the following terms and their functions: noun, pronoun, adjective, adverb, verb, preposition and conjunction; (No sub-categories of these are required.)

(3) vocabulary study, idiomatic expression and simple figurative language;

(4) tenses, sequence of tenses, concord;

(5) direct and reported speech;

(6) sentence and paragraph construction; (The emphasis should be on synthesis rather than on analysis.)

(7)/..........

(7) acceptable English usage;

(8) the objective and subjective use of language, e.g. the distinction between fact and opinion; discrimination between the sincere and the insincere.

Many of the exercises relating to the study of the way in which language works can be carried out orally. It should not be undertaken or examined out of context, that is, through a series of detached, isolated exercises or questions. The pupil should become acquainted with the commoner forms of grammatical terminology and accidence only in so far as they are relevant to the discussion of his work. In this way these features will be considered as part of the living language and not as dead exhibits.

The Examination

STANDARD 5

A.	Spoken English..........................	30 marks
B.	Reading	
(i)	Reading..........................	20 marks
(ii)	Comprehension of what has been read, tested orally..................	10 marks
C.	Written English	
(i)	Composition..........................	50 marks
(ii)	Letter..........................	20 marks
(iii)	Comprehension exercise..............	30 marks
(iv)	Language study......................	40 marks
	Total..........................	200 marks

Note: 1. The work done under Sections A and B must not be made the subject of a final examination. The marks gained by the pupil in these Sections must be built up on a cumulative basis.

2. Schools need not conduct a final examination of the work done under Sections C(i) and (ii). The final mark can be built up accumulatively from the marks awarded in the course of the year.

3. Paper I, Composition and Letter, 1 hour. Paper II, Comprehension Exercise and Language Study, 1 hour.

4./......

4. Section C (i)

The 50 marks for composition should be awarded as follows:

(a) prose composition (narrative or descriptive or subjective... 30 marks

(b) another form of writing (a diary or a report or a poem or a playlet or dialogue). 20 marks

STANDARDS 6 AND 7

1. The syllabus for Standard 5 must be studied in detail as it is the foundation on which the syllabus for Standards 6 and 7 is built.

2. While the syllabus must be progressively implemented with the depth and the breadth appropriate to each of the Standards 5, 6 and 7, special mention must be made of the work done in Standard 7.

This standard marks the end of the Junior Secondary Phase of the pupil's education. The attainment reached by this stage must be such as will enable him to progress to the Senior Phase with confidence. This applies particularly to the study of Literature. It is essential that each teacher of Standard 7 should make a close study of the syllabus for Standards 8, 9 and 10.

A. Spoken English

(a) Aims

The aims are those set out in the syllabus for Standard 5.

(b) Activities

All the oral activities detailed for Standard 5 must be continued. The work must increase progressively in depth, range of interest, variety and activity. It should provide the pupil with constant practice in and ample opportunity for using the spoken word.

Note: (1) All the above should, as far as possible, be group activities in order that as many pupils as possible may take part. The training of pupils in group techniques is essential.

(2) Pupils should be made aware of the social aspects and functions of spoken English. One cannot prescribe in the matter of accent, e.g. racial or regional. Pupils should be led to see that some ways of speaking and/or word usage are more acceptable than others according to circumstances,

(3)/...........

(3) It is essential to bear in mind that spoken communication should be purposefully motivated. The pupil must not only know the reason for communicating but also have something to communicate.

B. Reading

(a) Aims

The aims are those set out in the syllabus for Standard 5. In addition, a certain measure of critical discernment should be encouraged and developed.

(b) Activities

The activities are those set out in the syllabus for Standard 5.

(c) The Study of Literature

The prescribed Reading Programme must be followed. It consists of

(i) Standard 6

1. three one-act plays;

   or

   a three-act play;

   or

   a Shakespeare play;

2. a minimum of 20 poems, other than the ones read in Standard 5, of suitable variety, length, and degree of difficulty chosen by the school itself from a prescribed anthology of poetry;

3. a novel;

4. a non-fiction work (biography or travel or natural history);

(ii) Standard 7

1. A minimum of twelve short stories selected by the school itself from a prescribed anthology of short stories;

2. a minimum of 25 poems, other than the ones read in Standards 5 and 6, of suitable variety, length, and degree of difficulty chosen by the school itself from a prescribed anthology of poetry;

3. and 4. two novels.

In addition to being guided through this programme, the pupil should be encouraged to read at the highest level at which he can respond with enthusiasm and sincerity and, above all, with understanding and enjoyment.

C. Written English

(a) Aims

The aims are those set out in the syllabus for Standard 5.

(b) Activities

All the written activities detailed for Standard 5 must be continued. The work must increase progressively in depth, range of interest, and variety. The writing of formal letters and the completion of questionnaires should be included.

Note: (1) Written English should be in a form appropriate to the topic, to the writer's intention and to the reader he has in mind.

(2) Literature and/or topics of general interest and immediate significance can provide stimuli for the pupil's writing.

(3)/........

(3) The pupil should be encouraged to read aloud and evaluate what he and his fellow pupils have written.

(4) It is essential to bear in mind that written communication should be purposefully motivated. The pupil must not only know the reason for communicating but also have something to communicate.

Note: Language Study

A study of language in action should form an integral part of English teaching to the end that the pupil may speak and write more effectively and appreciate literature more fully.

Guidance and instruction in sound English usage and sentence structure should be related to written and spoken activity in English. They should be related, where necessary, to the pupil's needs as revealed in his actual writing and speaking, and should include

(1) punctuation and spelling;

(2) a knowledge of the following terms and their functions: noun, pronoun, adjective, adverb, verb, preposition and conjunction; (No sub-categories of these are required.)

(3) vocabulary study, idiomatic expression and simple figurative language;

(4) tenses, sequence of tenses, concord;

(5) direct and reported speech;

(6) sentence and paragraph construction; (The emphasis should be on synthesis rather than on analysis.)

(7) acceptable English usage;

(8) the objective and subjective use of language, e.g. the distinction between fact and opinion; discrimination between the sincere and the insincere.

Many/...........

Many of the exercises relating to the study of the way in which language works can be carried out orally. It should not be undertaken or examined out of context, that is, through a series of detached, isolated exercises or questions. The pupil should become acquainted with the commoner forms of grammatical terminology and accidence only in so far as they are relevant to the discussion of his work. In this way these features will be considered as part of the living language and not as dead exhibits.

The Examination

STANDARD 6

The marks allocated to the various subsections in Standard 5 are multiplied by 2. The total mark must be 400.

STANDARD 7

A. Spoken English.............................. 50 marks

B. Reading

(i) Reading.............................. 30 marks

(ii) Comprehension of what has been read, tested orally........................ 20 marks

(iii) The study of Literature................ 80 marks

C. Written English

(i) Composition........................... 75 marks

(ii) Letter................................ 25 marks

(iii) Comprehension exercise................. 40 marks

(iv) Language study........................ 80 marks

400 marks

Note: 1. (i) The work done under Sections A and B must not be made the subject of a final examination. The marks gained by the pupil in these sections must be awarded in the course of the year. Only 2 of the 4 prescribed books studied should be examined under B(iii). The school itself will choose which books

it/........

it wishes to examine. As soon as the study of a prescribed book has been completed, it should be examined.

(ii) Schools need not conduct a final examination of the work done under Sections C(i) and (ii). The final mark can be compiled accumutively from the marks awarded in the course of the year.

(iii) Paper I, Composition and letter, 1½ hours. Paper II, Comprehension Exercise and Language Study, 1½ hours.

(iv) Section C(i)

The 75 marks for composition should be awarded as follows:

(a) prose composition (narrative or descriptive or subjective)....... 50 marks

(b) another form of writing (a diary or a report or a poem or a playlet or dialogue)............ 25 marks

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APPENDIX C

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
OF THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE

Syllabus for English
First Language, Higher Grade
(Senior Secondary Course)

SENIOR SECONDARY COURSE:
SYLLABUS FOR ENGLISH (HIGHER GRADE)

A. AIMS

General Aim

The general aim is to promote the pupil's intellectual, emotional and social development.

This can be regarded as the end of education as a whole, almost all subjects in the curriculum being directed towards it; it should be emphasised, however, that the relationship between a child's linguistic skill and his personal development is a unique one. It must, therefore, be recognized that the teacher of English is merely contributing to a process that beings in infancy and and continues throughout life.

The teacher's task is not to be thought of in terms of providing a series of classroom exercises, but of creating opportunities for the extension and enrichment of experience.

The specific aims which follow should be seen as aspects of the general aim; the division in the course itself may be regarded as the areas in which the specific aims can be promoted.

Specific Aims

(a) To increase the pupil's capacity to observe, to discriminate, to see relationships, and to order his thoughts coherently

(i) by providing opportunity and motivation for such activities, and

(ii) by offering such help and constructive criticism as may be necessary;

(b) to help the pupil understand himself and his own emotional and moral responses, in order that he may live more fully and consciously and responsibly

(i) by encouraging observation and discussion of states of mind, of emotional reactions, and of moral values, particularly in the context of literature, and

(ii) by encouraging the exploration, through speech, writing and dramatic expression, of his own feelings and states of mind;

(c) to extend, through increasing his capacity to communicate with others, the pupil's mental and emotional world

(i) by stimulating discussion in the classroom, and giving such help as may be needed to achieve effective oral communication;

(ii) by encouraging receptive, responsive and courteous listening;

(iii) by providing adequately motivated opportunities for written communication; and

(iv) by encouraging perceptive reading of what others, including his fellow pupils, have written;

(d) to extend the pupil's intellectual, emotional and cultural experience

(i) by training him to read sensitively and intelligently;

(ii) by encouraging him to read widely; and

(iii) by fostering critical enjoyment of, for example, plays, films, radio and television programmes;

(e) to train the pupil to express clearly and correctly and effectively what he observes, knows, thinks and feels.

B. OUTLINE OF THE COURSE

For convenience' sake the course is presented here under three headings, although in practice the work must be integrated. It follows that the teacher should use the periods allocated to English in a flexible manner, provided that the three aspects of the work indicated below receive due attention:

(a) Spoken English

(i) Teachers should aim at

(1) encouraging pupils to speak fluently, clearly and with ease;

(2) providing speech situations which will help pupils to acquire poise and confidence;

(3) developing in pupils the ability to convey to others their observations and thoughts in an orderly and convincing manner; and

(4) training pupils to listen perceptively and to think logically.

(ii) Oral activity includes the following:-

(1) exercise in listening-comprehension, involving recall, and sensitive and perceptive response to tone, style feeling and intention;
(2) discussion of topics of local, general and personal interest and significance;
(3) discussion based on prescribed works, personal reading and other subjects studied by the pupils;
(4) short talks on a variety of topics, together with questioning and discussion;
(5) the reading aloud of prose and poetry, by individuals and by groups; dramatic activities, including play-reading, improvisation, creative drama and the production of short plays;
(6) exercise in practical instruction, description, and explanation;
(7) group discussions of topics based on centres of interest; and
(8) forum discussions and debates.

Note: Where applicable and practicable as many pupils as possible should be involved in the above activities.

(iii) Pupils should be made aware of the social aspects and and functions of spoken English. Once cannot always prescribe in the matters of accent and word usage; but pupils should be led to see that some ways of speaking are more acceptable than others according to circumstances.

(c) Literature

(i) General Reading

The number of books specifically prescribed for study should not be regarded as sufficient. It is therefore the teacher's function to develop in pupils an enjoyment of reading by encouraging them to read at the highest level at which they can respond with enthusiasm and sincerity and, above all, with understanding.

Pupils should read at least 18 books of literary merit (in addition to the prescribed works) during the three years of the course, and should make full use of the

libraries at their disposal.

Teachers are urged to avail themselves of the many excellent recordings now available.

Few activities can be more valuable or stimulating than the skilful reading aloud by the teacher from the works that he has enjoyed.

(ii) Prescribed works

The following will be prescribed for Standard 8:

(1) a Shakespeare play;
(2) a selection (of not more than 800 lines) from an anthology of poetry; and
(3) a novel or book of travel or an anthology of short stories.

Pupils will be examined on (1) and (2) only.

The following will be prescribed for Standard 10:

(1) a Shakespeare play;
(2) a selection (of not more than 2 000 lines) from an anthology of poetry;
(3) a novel; and
(4) a translation from another language (excluding plays), another novel, another volume of poetry, a selection from an anthology of short stories, a biography or a book of travel.

Note: (1) The study of the poetry prescribed for Standard 10 must be commenced during the Standard 9 year.

(2) Not more than one translated work will be prescribed in any year.

(3) The examination of prescribed works must be designed to test the candidate's understanding and appreciation of these works. The examining of content in unimportant detail must be avoided. The emphasis, as in teach ing, should always be on the texts themselves and on the ways in which form, imagery, metaphore, rhyme and rhythm are used to strengthen and support the writer's intention.

Literary form, verse form, figures of speech, rhyme and rhythm, and the various types of imagery that words arouse should, however, not be studied or examined as unrelated topics.

C. GENERAL NOTES

A study of language in action should form an integral part of all the above aspects of English teaching to the end that pupils may speak and write more effectively and appreciate literature more fully.

Guidance and instruction in sound English usage and sentence structure, including punctuation, should be related to written and spoken activity in English. This guidance should for the most part arise from the pupil's needs as revealed in actual writing and speaking, and should not consist of detached exercises.

Essential training in language includes the various aspects listed in (v) of the Written English below.

Pupils must be acquainted with the commoner forms of grammatical terminology (e.g. parts of speech), insofar as they are relevant to the discussion of their work. These must be treated in context and not in isolated exercises, and questions will not be set on them in the examination.

D. THE EXAMINATION

Standards 8, 9 and 10

(a) Spoken English

(i) Speaking .... 30 marks
(ii) Reading .... 10 marks
(iii) Comprehension of what has been read, tested orally .... 10 marks

(b) Written English

(i) Composition of between 500 and 600 words on one of at least six subjects. (It is suggested that, in the case of Standard 8, the length of the composition be between 350 and 400 words .... 70 marks
(ii) A letter, review, objective description, report or poem (at least three will be set) .... 30 marks

(iii) A comprehension test on a prose passage .... 40 marks

(iv) An exercise in which candidates are asked to give, in a limited number of words, the essential substance of a passage, which may be part of the passage in (b)(iii) .... 20 marks

(v) Questions to test knowledge of and skill in handling some or all of the following features of English in action:

(Note: In order that these features may be considered as part of the living language and not as dead exhibits, questions should be set on a passage or passages printed in the paper and/or the examiner may require candidates to expand a given series of brief notes in such a way as to reveal their skill in respect of these features.)

(1) vocabulary, idiomatic expression and figurative language;
(2) punctuation;
(3) sentence and paragraph construction (parsing, formal analysis, and synthesis requiring a knowledge of specifically named clauses, will not be examined);
(4) the use of tenses;
(5) the objective (referential) and subjective (emotive) use of language (e.g. the distinction between expressions of fact and opinion; discrimination between the sincere and the insincere); and
(6) other aspects of English usage involving acceptable and unacceptable language. 70 marks

(c) Prescribed Works

Standard 10

Section A: Drama: A play by Shakespeare .... 30 marks

Section B: Poetry: Questions as follows:

(i) On the prescribed poems .... 20 marks

(ii) On a passage of unseen verse .... 10 marks

(This will be compulsory for all candidates.)

Section C: Two additional books (30 marks each) . 60 marks

Note: (1) Two essay-type and one contextual-type question will be set on each book except the poetry (which will be examined by the contextual-type question only). Candidates must answer one question on each of the four books. They must answer at least two contextual questions, one of which will be on poetry, and at least one essay question. In Section B (i) on the prescribed poems, candidates will be offered a choice of two contextual questions.

(2) The Contextual Question: This type of question is a test of the understanding of a poem, or poems, or of an important passage in a work. In the case of an extract, some of the questions should refer not only to the extract itself, but also to its relationship to the rest of the work.

(3) Paper 1, Prescribed Works ($2\frac{1}{2}$ hours) ..... 120 marks
Paper 11, Original Writing (2 hours) ..... 100 marks
Paper 111, Comprehension and Language ($2\frac{1}{2}$ hours) .... 130 marks
Spoken English .... 50 marks
Total .... 400 marks

(The work done under (a) "Spoken English" must not be made the subject of a final examination. The marks gained by pupils in this section must be awarded, on a cumulative basis, in the course of the year.)

(4) In Standards 8 and 9, the final mark for written composition may be compiled of marks awarded in the course of the year.

(5) In Standard 8 the Shakespeare play and the anthology of poetry must be examined in the course of the year and not be made the subjects of a final examination. The marks gained will be used only for the purpose of promotion to Standard 9.

(6) In Standard 9 one of the prescribed works will be examined in the course of the year. The examination of the other must form part of the final examination for Standard 9. The marks gained for both prescribed works must be used only for the purpose of promotion to Standard 10.

(7) In Standards 8 and 9 at least one essay-type question and one contextual-type question will be set on each prescribed work. Candidates must answer two questions (30 marks each), one of which will be of a contextual type, on each of the two books.

(8) In Standards 8 and 9 the total mark for English must be 400 (i.e. Spoken English, 50 marks; Prescribed Works, 120 marks; Original Writing, 100 marks; Comprehension and Language, 130 marks).

APPENDIX D

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
OF THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE

Guide to Teachers
on
The Teaching of English Grammar

JUNIOR AND SENIOR SECONDARY COURSES

ENGLISH: STANDARDS 5 - 10

THE TEACHING OF GRAMMAR

1. Introduction

These guidance notes are offered for the consideration of teachers of English. It is hoped that every teacher of English will find something of interest and value in them. They are not prescriptive.

The new syllabuses for English require that the teaching of grammar shall not be isolated from the rest of the language and approached as a study on its own. They ask that it be closely integrated with and made to flow from the work done in the fields of the spoken word, the written word and reading.

This does NOT in any way imply that the teaching of grammar is of reduced importance. Grammar is a language discipline - one to which pupils must submit and whose rules they must respect for the proper ordering of their thoughts and their ability to communicate.

There is no suggestion in the new syllabuses that the grammar textbook should disappear from the classroom scene. Textbooks will continue to play a respected role in guiding teachers in the selection of appropriate material and providing pupils with opportunities for practising the various language skills and disciplines on an organized, graded basis.

The new syllabuses stress that pupils must be not required to commit to memory lists of words and phrases presented in isolation - items which they are unlikely to require in their future, active use of English as a vehicle for communication. The teaching of grammar must be purposeful, imaginative,and closely related to the pupils' needs. Much of it will be opportunistic, arising from what is being said, written or read in class. In this way function will fall into place and grammar become meaningful for the pupil.

The fact that (inter alia) active and passive voice, the subcategories of certain parts of speech, and the formal analysis of sentences are no longer required, does not imply that they must not be dealt with. It may often be necessary to do so and when the opportunity arises it should not be lost.

It/...........

A. PUNCTUATION

1. The teacher must not regard punctuation as an isolated exercise in his teaching programme. Every written exercise done by a pupil is a test of his ability to use punctuation marks effectively and correctly. The teacher should remember that punctuation marks are merely symbols used to indicate the stresses, pauses and rhythms of the speaking voice. He should regularly read aloud passages of prose and poetry (including passages from the setworks) to the class. The pupils should be given unpunctuated copies of such passages and as the teacher reads, they punctuate them.
   During the discussion that follows, the teacher checks their efforts and shows and explains the correct punctuation on the blackboard.

2. Numerous examples should be provided to show how punctuation affects the meaning and thus the reader's comprehension and interpretation of a passage.

   E.g. (I stopped, laughing, when I saw him fall.
   (I stopped laughing when I saw him fall.

   (He that is humble, ever shall have God to be his guide.
   (He that is humble ever, shall have God to be his guide.

3. During the Setwork lessons the pupils' attention should be drawn from time to time to examples of punctuation in action; specimens from their own writing should be used to demonstrate the effects of faulty punctuation. The teacher should present these examples both visually and orally, making use of the blackboard and the overhead projector.

4. Live situations should be created in the classroom when the punctuation of direct speech and dialogue is taught.
   A conversation between two or three pupils may be taped and the class required to suggest punctuation marks when the tape is played back.

5. The pupils' proficiency in the use of punctuation marks may be tested in the following ways:

   (a) roneod copies of a passage, partly punctuated, are given to them to punctuate. Discussion, demonstration and explanation follow the exercise;

   (b) they write and punctuate a dictated passage.

B. SPELLING

1. It is essential that the words taught should be taken from the pupils' active vocabulary and from prose passages and poems read in class. It may be found useful to compile spelling records of words, grouped under activity headings, that are of interest to the pupils.

2. The teacher should present the words to be taught in context, both orally and visually. He should make intelligent use of audio-visual aids in order that the presentation may make the maximum impact.

3. Words repeatedly misspelt should, if possible, be grouped according to their spelling pattern. They should be taught singly by means of a repeated oral and visual presentation until the teacher is satisfied that all the pupils can spell the words correctly in their written exercises. The pupils' attention should be drawn to these words when they appear in a passage that is being read.

4. Pupils will find it interesting and informative to look up the meaning and spelling of words in their dictionaries. It is important that they should frequently hear, see, speak and write these words in sentences.

5. Pupils should not be taught to spell words they would not normally use.

6. The dictation of short passages is a most effective means of testing the pupils' proficiency in spelling. Crossword puzzles and word games can add interest to the testing programme.

C. PARTS OF SPEECH

1. The syllabuses require that pupils should be familiar with the following terms: verbs, nouns, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, adjectives and adverbs. They state, too, that no sub-categories are required. This does not imply that the latter should never be dealt with; it will often be profitable to draw pupils' attention to the sub-categories of the different parts of speech and to show that these are determined primarily by function (and/or meaning). The syllabuses seek to avoid a detailed classification of parts of speech into sub-categories but to ensure rather that each is recognized by its function (and/or meaning) in a sentence.

2. To begin with, parts of speech will have to be taught - not by definition, but by the work each does (and/or the position it holds) in a sentence. Then will follow a period of consolidation during which different parts of speech are recognized by their function in passages selected from prescribed works or other reading material dealt with in class. When this consolidation stage has been successfully passed and pupils are able to recognize parts of speech with accuracy and ease, exercises of the following types may be given as a means of securing further consolidation.

(i) Nonsense words

"Rinnercorn". What part of speech is this nonsense word in each of these sentences? Why?

The rinnercorn squeezed itself through the narrow drainpipe.

If you rinnercorn again I shall have to ask you to leave the room.

I created a sensation at the party when I appeared in a rinnercorn blouse and skirt.

(ii) Nonsense rhymes

" 'Twas brillig, and the slithy toves
Did gyre and gimble in the wabe;
All mimsy were the borogroves
And the mome raths outgrabe."

Pick out all the verbs, nouns and adjectives in this nonsense rhyme and say why you recognise each as being the particular part of speech you say it is. [In this exercise pupils will have to base recognition on function, since the words have no meaning.]

Pupils/....

Pupils should be asked to make up their own nonsense words and rhymes and to use them for the recognition of different parts of speech. The class is required to identify each by its function.

Exercises of this type should be done orally.

3. Further consolidation exercises can be linked with vocabulary study. [See the suggestions made in this particular section of these guidance notes.] The work should be done orally and it may be found profitable to deal with each part of speech on a thematic basis. The following order may be helpful:

a. Noun
b. Verb
c. Adjective
d. Adverb

The thematic technique enables new words and forms to be introduced and taught concurrently.

Example: Theme - The Desert

Nouns: desert, palms, Arabia, dates, oases, camels, bedouin, sheik

oases: plural form; bedouin, sheik: new words

4. A third type of consolidation exercise tests the pupil's ability to use a particular part of speech correctly in a given sentence.

(i) Example

The sun shone in the sky.

Make this sentence more colourful and interesting by adding two adjectives and an adverb to it.

The wintry sun shone palely in the misty sky.
The tropical sun shone fiercely in the brassy sky.

The pupil reveals through his answer that he has mastered the function of the part of speech and can place it correctly in the sentence. To begin with, this type of exercise should be done orally. When it eventually progresses to the written form, it can be used to provide a preliminary training in imaginative and colourful writing.

An/....

An interesting exercise in this section is to show pupils how adjectives and adverbs can be used to set the mood, tone and intention of what is said or written.

(ii) Example

The pupil paged through the book.

The bored pupil paged aimlessly through the poorly illustrated book.

The eager pupil paged excitedly through the attractively illustrated book.

A useful exercise to test a pupil's knowledge of the function of each part of speech is to require him to make sentences using the same word as different parts of speech.

(iii) Example

Make sentences in which you use the word "round" first as a noun, then as a verb, then as an adjective, then as an adverb, and finally as a preposition.

"Three Blind Mice" can be sung as a round for four voices.

In what year did Vasco da Gama round the Cape of Good Hope?

The child is unhappy and insecure because he is a square peg in a round hole.

I tried to catch the horse as it ran round and round.

Round the rock the ragged rascal ran.

This type of consolidating exercise may be done both orally and in writing.

5. Prepositions should be recognised by their position and the work they do in a sentence. What is spoken, read and written in class will provide a wealth of material from which examples may be selected.

Testing should not always take the form of requiring pupils to supply a suitable preposition in a blank space in a given sentence. A better method is to require the pupil to show that he knows how to use a given preposition correctly by constructing the sentence himself.

Example

Make a sentence in which you use each of the following prepositions correctly: in, into; between, amongst; round, around; among, amongst; ......

6. When the different parts of speech have been taught, recognised in sentences, used in sentences and so thoroughly consolidated that their recognition and use is no longer a hit or miss affair, their expansion into phrases may be commenced.

This part of the work should be linked with sentence building (synthesis) and pupils shown how important for meaning phrase placing is. [See the section on building simple and complex sentences.] Phrases may later be expanded into clauses and the pupil shown how, at each progression - part of speech, phrase, clause - the function remains the same.

It should be noted when teaching sentence structure and construction that the emphasis should be placed on synthesis and not on analysis. This does not imply that analysis should not be dealt with. Whenever a suitable opportunity arises, the pupils' attention should be drawn to striking examples of phrases and clauses as they appear in simple and complex sentences.

HduT/HvH.

D. THE VERB

1. A special section of the guidance notes is devoted to the verb because of the difficulty it sometimes presents for pupils whose second language is English.

2. To begin with, it is necessary that pupils should be able to distinguish clearly between finite and non-finite verbs. It may prove helpful to link the teaching of finite verbs with sentence types: statement, question, command. Attention is drawn to selected sentences appearing in what is read in class, the finite verb in each being emphasized to highlight it.

3. This will lead to the discovery that a finite verb can have more than one part: will have been done; is being ploughed; was raining; had had; has finished; will lead. This enables the teacher to proceed to a consideration of concord and tense. Much of the illustrative material used should be selected from what is read in class so that the various forms a verb can take are presented quite naturally and not in isolated, artificially contrived sentences. The learning should come mainly through constant seeing and discovering - rather than through active teaching - and then be consolidated through sustained practice in speaking and writing.

4. When concord is studied and practised, a great deal of time will have to be spent consolidating the third person, singular, present tense, for it is this form which often presents difficulty.

4.1 Only later should attention be drawn to the way in which such words and phrases as and, either/or, neither/nor, as well as, with govern concord and determine the form the verb should take.

5. Through seeing verbs in action, pupils can be led to the discovery that tense indicates when the action took place in time. Draw attention to the simple tenses first and consolidate their use through constant spoken and written practice.

5.1 Then proceed to the perfect forms, concentrating more particularly on the present perfect tense - one which is tending to disappear from use in South Africa.

5.2 Pupils may find the use of "cue" words helpful: after, when, since, ago, yesterday, if, tomorrow, usually, recently, a moment ago, ... They supply a clue as to the tense to be used.

5.3/.....

5.3 The learning of tenses should come primarily through seeing, discovering and practising and not through the memorizing of definitions and rules.

6. Time should be spent on the verb to be and the role it plays in the formation of tenses. Once again, illustrative material should be selected from passages read in class. Show pupils the verb to be in association with present and past participles, and let them discover the continuous tenses and active and passive voice forms. Consolidate through meaningful spoken and written practice.

6.1 It is essential that pupils be introduced to and practise active and passive forms, but no changing of a sentence from the active to the passive voice (or vice versa) is required. This type of exercise is purely an academic one and can become artificial and involved. Let pupils use the passive voice quite naturally in their speaking and writing:

Gold is mined in the Transvaal and the Orange Free State.

Grapes are exported to Great Britain.

The accident was caused by the carelessness of the driver.

The window-panes were shattered by hailstones.

7. The study of non-finite verbs should also be undertaken through seeing, discovering, and practising. In this section of the work, draw attention to and deal with the infinitive and the more common of the auxiliary verbs: can, will, shall, may, must, have. Pupils often find difficulty in distinguishing between the use of can and may. Consolidate their use through constant spoken and written practice.

7.1 The use of the auxiliary do can be taught in conjunction with question and emphatic forms:

Do you know where he lives?

I do know where he lives.

8. Attention should be drawn to the present and past participle forms of verbs, firstly for the important role each plays in the formation of tenses, and then for their use as adjectives: a flying saucer; an orbiting skylab; a neglected garden; a dedicated teacher.

9. When sequence of tenses is taught, show pupils how the tense of the introductory verb influences and often determines the tense(s) of the verb(s) which follows/follow.

/TD

E. BASIC STRUCTURES : PATTERN SENTENCES

1. This is a technique which may be used in second language teaching. The basic structures - Statements, Commands, Questions, Negative and Emphatic Forms - are dealt with throughout the Course but particularly under the heading "Sentence and Paragraph Construction".

The regular use of pattern sentences gives pupils concentrated listening, speaking, and seeing practice in the use of English. Pattern sentences may be of two types, called for convenience:

(i) Parallel Pattern Sentences,

(ii) Progressive Pattern Sentences.

2. Parallel Pattern Sentences

A sentence embodying a particular basic structure is given. Then some five groups of words which may be substituted within the same pattern are supplied, and the pupil is expected to work out (both orally and in writing) the parallel solution. An advantage of this type of exercise is that the weaker pupils can arrive at the correct solution and the brighter ones can progress at their own speed. When the exercise ends, each group will have gained maximum benefit from it.

Examples:

(a) Statement and Present Tense

She speaks English very well but she doesn't understand French.

ride/bicycle/drive/car; play/piano/read/music;

sow/flower seeds/grow/vegetables.

(She rides a bicycle very well but she doesn't drive a car.
She plays the piano very well but she doesn't read music.)

(b) Command and Future Tense

Leave for school immediately or you will be punished.

do/work/scold; reduce/speed/fine.

(c)/.....

(c) Question and Present Perfect Tense

Have you ever been to Madrid? No, but I've been meaning to go.

Johannesburg?/hope; Cairo?/intend; New York?/want.

(d) Negative and Past Tense

He was so frightened that he didn't utter a single sound.

self-confident/take/precaution; deaf/hear/word.

(e) Emphatic, Negative and Past Tense

No, I did not do my work!

prepare/lesson; mow/lawn; answer/your letter.

3. Progressive Pattern Sentences

One of the basic structures is supplied and the pupil must re-cast this sentence to arrive at as many as possible of the other basic structures.

Example:

A Statement is given: I enjoy reading books by Nevil Shute.

Now re-cast:

(i) as a Question: (Do you enjoy reading books by Nevil Shute.)

(ii) in Negative Form: (I don't enjoy reading books by Nevil Shute.)

(iii) in Emphatic Form: (I do enjoy reading books by Nevil Shute.)

or: (I certainly don't enjoy reading books by Nevil Shute.)

(NOTE: The example given does not lend itself to re-casting as a Command.)

(Care should be taken to ensure that exercises in Progressive Pattern Sentences do not force the weaker pupils into writing meaningless sentences (e.g. a Command from the example given above.))

Parallel Pattern Sentences should be the form most frequently used. Only when pupils have a thorough grasp of these sentences should occasional practice in the writing of Progressive Pattern Sentences be given. Progressive Pattern Sentences should be drawn up with great care and used with discretion.

SENTENCE AND PARAGRAPH CONSTRUCTION

. Introduction

.1 The teaching of this section of the syllabuses forms the foundation of all forms of written work which a pupil will be called upon to do. Therefore, the emphasis should be on synthesis - showing pupils the various ways in which sentences can be built up. Although formal analysis is not required, it will be instructive from time to time to take selected simple and complex (including compound) sentences apart and show pupils how they have been constructed.

.2 Sentence-writing is closely linked with the work done in other sections of the language study syllabus: spelling, punctuation, parts of speech (including phrases and clauses), the verb (including sequence of tenses), basic sentence patterns, word choice (vocabulary study). The guidance notes for these sections should accordingly be referred to.

. Simple Sentences

.1 Establish the fact that a simple sentence can take several different basic forms: It can be a statement, a question, a command, a wish or an exclamation. Let the pupils discover the relationship between form and intention.

.2 Draw the pupils' attention to the characteristic structure of each basic type, starting with the statement form, and then showing how this can be converted into the other forms.

Example statement - question:

The car was travelling at 80 kilometres per hour.
Was the car travelling at 80 kilometres per hour?

Consolidate by:

(i) Identifying sentence types from examples selected for a particular purpose from the reading programme; and

(ii) letting the pupils provide spoken and written examples of each type.

3 Variations on the above basic patterns should then be discussed in order to show how changes in position can alter meaning and/or emphasis.

Example: Moving the object:

I do not like that man.
That man I do not like.

.4 Pupils should also be shown how important it is to place phrases and words (e.g. adverbs) correctly in the sentence and how errors of misplaced phrases and words can be avoided:

.4.1 Fried steak was served to all the guests smothered in onions.

.4.2 He was trapped by his feet in a car.

.4.3 Having eaten the dog biscuits, Mary gave her Corgi some milk.

.4.4 The rescue party made its way on foot to the top of the mountain slowly.

. Complex Sentences

.1 Commence the discussion of complex (including compound) sentences by getting pupils to suggest reasons why we do not usually write in simple sentences only. Then show them the different ways of combining sentences to form complex and compound sentences.

Consolidate by:

(i) Discussing examples selected from the reading programme; and

(ii) letting the pupils provide spoken and written examples of complex sentences.

.2 Show them how to avoid such errors of synthesis as:

(i) Run-on sentences

Tom was bilious yesterday, he ate too much.

(ii) Faulty parallel structures

The boy likes to swim and surfing.

(iii) Combining unrelated sentences

Thank you for the present and the weather is beautiful.

3 Sentence reduction is a valuable exercise for training pupils to write concisely and to avoid such stylistic errors as: Verbosity; redundancy; tautology. It also provides a valuable preliminary training in précis writing.

Example: The girl who was dressed in blue left early.
The girl dressed in blue left early.
The girl in blue left early.

When pupils practise sentence reduction techniques, they must be trained to avoid faulty ellipses, for these can lead to ambiguity or nonsense.

3./.....

Example: I like Jenny more than Judy.
When five years old, Tom's father died.

. Paragraphs:

.1 The pupils' attention should be drawn to variations of sentence patterns within the paragraph: Active/passive; simple/complex/ compound (dealt with in 2 and 3); loose/periodic.

.2 A consideration of the topic sentence introduces pupils to the practice of organising sentences to form paragraphs and leads them on to the realisation that a paragraph must have overall unity and coherence.

.3 Further consolidation of the study of the paragraph could be undertaken by:

(i) Integrating with own composition work; and

(ii) studying the syntactical style of various authors.

G. VOCABULARY STUDY

Vocabulary study is a vast field and many different methods may be used to extend a pupil's active command of words. The following are some ideas on vocabulary teaching.

1. The pupil should be confronted with a situation where the need for a particular word (or words) arises. His chances of retaining the meaning of the word are increased thereby and he will have learnt how to place the word in context. The pupil must not be given lists of unrelated words and idiomatic phrases to memorize. The teacher should also avoid giving him a vocabulary of clichés.

2. Link vocabulary study with parts of speech

   (a) Verbs (a thematic study)

movement:	people - stagger, stride, hobble, shuffle birds - hover, dive, swoop, hurtle animals - prance, stampede, scamper, slither
sound:	people - laugh, cry, giggle, scream birds - twitter, screech, hoot, squawk animals - bay, whine, roar, neigh

The teaching should be done orally with the movements mimed and the sound imitated, so that the pupils are completely involved and gain a sight or a sound picture of the action of the verb.

A tape recorder can be used with effect. A group of pupils may record their own sound or movements and play these back for the class to identify.

A paragraph or short composition may be written as a follow-up exercise.

The following is a suggested exercise:

"There are many words meaning 'to walk', each describing a particular manner of walking. Find the best word for the following:

(a) to walk unsteadily,

(b) to walk laboriously, with effort,

(c) to walk in a pompous or affected manner,

(d) to walk slowly, wasting time.

Speaking/.....

Speaking:

(a) to speak in a slow prolonged manner,

(b) to talk rapidly, making inarticulate sounds."

/Fowler and Russell/

(b) Adjectives

A portrait can be shown to the class (or a live model used) and the pupils required to find adjectives to describe particular features of the person.

hair: groomed, tousled, unkempt, wavy

eyes: hazel, twinkling, deep-set, piercing

complexion: ruddy, sallow, tanned, fresh.

(Synonyms and Antonyms can be introduced during the lesson.)

This exercise can be followed by the writing of a descriptive paragraph on: My Grandad. My Granny. The person I most dislike. My kind old uncle.

A senior class may be asked to arrange groups of adjectives in some kind of recognizable order:

(a) Clever, shrewd, intelligent, cunning, wise, knowledgeable.

(b) Plain, ill-favoured, repulsive, ugly, homely.

/Fowler/

The following is an exercise suitable for senior classes:

"Here are fifty words describing people or their characteristics. Check that you know the meanings of them all, and could use them in suitable contexts.

Group them: (a) as favourable, neutral or critical adjectives;

(b) by similarity of meaning, so that you have a number of lists of loosely synonymous or related words.

acrimonious; avaricious; begign; cadaverous; candid; cantankerous; cordial; debonair; demure; diffident; dissipated; ebullient; facetious; fastidious, etc. "

/Lennox-Short/

(c)/.....

(c) Adverbs

Sketch a situation in which there is action, e.g. "A dark cave - midnight - you approach." (How?) timidly, nervously, cautiously, warily, courageously.

Miming can be used to illustrate the action. Synonyms and Antonyms can be dealt with during this lesson.

(d) Prepositional phrases

Verb - preposition combinations and their meaning can be studied in given situations.

3. Specialized Vocabulary and Word Origin (Studies on a thematic basis)

(a) Sport

Read a report on a cricket match appearing in a local newspaper and study the specialized vocabulary used. Cricketing terms not used in the report can be discussed and the specialized vocabulary built up can serve as the basis for composition work.

A pupil may be asked to explain very simply (to the layman) the rules of a game of his choice: rugby; billiards; tennis; soccer; chess. Any unfamiliar term must be clearly explained.

A team quiz may be organized in which a panel of pupils answer questions on the terms used in various sports.

Exercise

"Study the ambiguity in the following newspaper headlines concerning sport. (This type of exercise combines the study of style, précis and grammatical error with vocabulary.)

Local Police Squash Champions
Pole Vaults Over 5 Metres
Eleven Tries /Lennox-Short/

(b) Neologisms /To illustrate how language grows/

Space travel: ionosphere; lunar module; blast off; count down; orbiting; Venusian; launching-pad; skylab.

Medicine/.....

Medicine: coronary; cardiograph; penicillin; allergy; transplant; rejection.

A situation in which a need for a particular word arises should be sketched so that pupils are not confronted with a list of unrelated words they will find difficult to absorb and retain.

(c) Foreign words (Our debt to other languages)

Introduce pupils to Latin or Greek words, roots or prefixes and ask them to find English words derived from these e.g. porto (I carry): portable, porter, (im)port (ex)port, portmanteau (Fr. origin).

centum (a hundred): centigrade, century, centipede, cent.

(Senior classes may be shown how to find the derivation of words in a dictionary.)

Exercise

A man commits suicide if he kills himself. "The Latin word "caedo" means "I kill" and "sui" means "of self".

What do the following mean?

regicide, fratricide, genocide, homicide, etc.

(d) Words and expressions which have been borrowed directly from foreign sources

e.g. (i) status quo; vide; alma mater; inter alia

(ii) á la carte; au revoir; bon voyage

(iii) ju-jitsu; tomahawk; siesta.

Under this heading discuss too the introduction of Afrikaans words into the English vocabulary: trek, veld, krans, braai.

The value of a dictionary when dealing with this particular section cannot be over-emphasized.

Word games can be useful.

(a) Crosswords: The pupils make their own puzzles, using a dictionary and working out their own clues. The puzzles are given to members of the class to solve.

(b)/.....

(b) Anagrams: The pupil who can unravel the list of anagrams in the shortest time is the winner.

Exercise

Colours: telcars (scarlet)
nosmric (crimson)
lisrev (silver)

(It is suggested that a thematic approach be used.)

(c) The following are other types of word games:

(i) "How many 'CATS' do you find?

e.g. This cat is a disaster. (Catastrophe)
This cat is a stone-thrower.
This cat will give you a list of articles and their prices.
This cat has a nasal complaint."

(ii) "Can you find the 'ANTS'?

You hope this ant will pay his rent.
This is a peevish ant."

(iii) "There is a 'MAN' at the beginning of each of these words:

This man is hand-cuffed.
This man is insane."

/Fowler and Russell/

The pupils may think of words to add to the list.

5. Word-building (This can be linked with spelling.)

Exercise

"How many words can you make using the letters in a given word?

nameless - name, seal, man, mane, mean, meal, ..."

/Lennox-Short/

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6. Figures of Speech

It is suggested that pupils be encouraged to be original and to create their own similes, metaphors, and other figures of speech. They should be taught to avoid clichés:

Your error is as plain as a pikestaff (outmoded and obscure).

Her hat was as green as grass. (dull).

O P E R A T I O N   G R A M M A R

(A GRAMMAR OF ENGLISH AS MOTHER TONGUE FOR SCHOOLS)

STANDARD EIGHT

MALCOLM VENTER, B.A. (Hons.)
(Senior Teacher, Alexander Road
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'I would make all boys learn English; and then I would let the clever ones learn Latin as an honour, and Greek as a treat. But the only thing I would whip them for is not knowing English. I would whip them hard for that.'

— SIR WINSTON CHURCHILL

CONTENTS

	Acknowledgements	iv
	Introduction	v
One	What is 'Grammar' ?	1
Two	The Elements of Grammar	6
Three	Basic Sentence Structure	9
Four	The Kernel Sentence	15
Five	The Subject (1)	22
Six	The Subject (2)	27
Seven	The Predicate (1)	34
Eight	The Predicate (2)	38
Nine	Subject and Predicate	44
Ten	The Non-kernel Sentence	52
Eleven	Question Sentences	56
Twelve	Commands and Exclamations	61
Thirteen	Simple vs Non-simple Sentences	65

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4. My wife who, despite having had to live with a grammarian, has nevertheless remained sane enough to try out the ideas in her own teaching and to type the manuscript of the book.

M.G.V.

INTRODUCTION FOR TEACHERS

LINGUISTICS AND THE SCHOOL

'In Britain, however, and the South African Republic, the major linguistic studies of the past two hundred years have had relatively little effect upon language work in schools, and in particular upon school programmes for English as a mother-tongue.'[1]

'These reference works do not reflect the findings of modern linguistics. Grammar is treated on traditional lines, inspired by the study of Latin and Greek.'[2]

These two statements, although similar in that they both represent a rather devastating indictment of school grammar, are the views of two different people who face each other across an enormous gulf. On the left we have a university professor, and on the right a school teacher. Each is looking in the other's direction: the university professor, who represents a '~~Leftist~~' progressive approach to language studies, is implying a criticism of the schools for their verkramptheid; and the school teacher, who represents those teachers who regretfully have to admit that this is true, is implying the need to bridge the gap between the two institutions of learning. School grammar must be brought more in line with ~~the latest~~ recent trends in university linguistics.

These views raise certain questions that must be answered:

1. What exactly is Linguistics ?
2. Why is there this gulf ?
3. How can the gulf be bridged ?

1. What is Linguistics ?

A question which many teachers of English have been asking during the past few years is, 'What is Linguistics ?' The word is often bandied about in teaching circles, but no one really seems to know what it is all about. In broadest terms, the word simply means 'the science of language'. If this is so, it is then obvious that, contrary to what many teachers think, the subject is not really new; in fact, linguistics is one of the oldest studies - it is only the name that is new.

It was among the Greeks that western language studies began more than two hundred years before the birth of Christ. The Romans (who were generally more imitative than inventive in most things) then borrowed the Greek ideas on language and applied them to Latin. The Graeco-Roman tradition under=

went various changes during the Middle Ages and the Renaissance. Since Latin as the international language of the west was the only language studied in Europe, grammar and Latin eventually came to be almost synonymous terms. It was to be expected, therefore, that when the vernacular languages came into their own in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, Latin should be taken as the model. The eighteenth century Traditional grammars of English, led by that of Bishop Lowth[3], were thus based on the Latinate model. The nineteenth century represents a break with the typical language studies of the past in that the emphasis was on historical, rather than contemporary, linguistics. The 1920's saw the beginning of a rebellion against the old Traditional approach to language. The Structuralist grammarians, led by Leonard Bloomfield[4], maintained that each language has its own structure and must therefore be described in its own terms. Then in 1957, American Noam Chomsky published his little book entitled Syntactic Structures[5], which strongly challenged all thinking on language and psycholinguistics. He maintained that, while the Structuralists were correct in arguing that each language had its own surface structure, the Traditional idea that were were basic similarities underlying the surface differences of all languages must also be accepted. He therefore synthesised the Traditional and Structural approaches into a new compound known as Transformational grammar[6]. Here is what a modern linguist has to say about this approach:

> '... its general framework has become accepted by the majority of Western linguistics as providing the most reliable and revealing version of linguistic analysis. This fact has to be acknowledged despite intractable opposition from a few representatives of older schools of linguistics or more insular traditions and despite many disagreements about details of the proposed analysis.'[7]

American schools have tended to keep abreast of changes in Linguistics. Their textbooks, having passed through the stages of Traditional and Structural grammar, are today largely based on the Transformational approach of Noam Chomsky.[8] In South Africa, on the other hand, as was pointed out in both quotations at the beginning of this Introduction, we are only 200 years behind! It is strange that, in the day of the 'New Maths' and the 'New Science' the 'New Grammar' should have passed us by.

2. Why is there this gulf ?

Firstly, in the past there was little or no training in grammar for teachers of English at universities. In a Questionnaire sent to Cape High School teachers in 1973, there was only 1 out of the 61 respondents who had studied grammar extensively in his degree; 24 superficially; and 34

not at all. It is only in recent years that Linguistics has been introduced into a few South African universities.

Secondly, this situation is not being rectified at present, since current refresher courses tend to ignore the contribution of Linguistics to school grammar - perhaps because of the strong interest today in the creative side of English teaching.[9]

The result is that most teachers have no more knowledge about grammar than when they left school, where they were taught the old Traditional approach. This is a situation which, strangely enough, would not be tolerated in any other subject - nor, for that matter, in any other aspect of English.

3. How can the gulf be bridged ?

In view of the situation described above, it would seem that the only way in which our problem can be resolved is to look to school textbooks that take cognisance of the latest trends in Linguistics. This does not mean that Linguistics must be introduced holus-bolus into the schools. Much of what is studied at university is beyond the needs and ability of the schoolchild. Furthermore, this would lead to confusion among both teachers and pupils. What is needed at present are textbooks which reconcile the old and the new yet which are also in line with the rest of the English Syllabus.

It was with these facts in mind that Operation Grammar was compiled. The grammar presented here is basically Traditional grammar re-cast in the light of insights from Transformational grammar, and is the product of about five years' research by the author. A number of teachers have already experimented with the contents of this book and found it useful. Pupils who have submitted to it as guinea-pigs feel that this approach is easier and more interesting than the old, and one particularly bright pupil even found it 'psychologically more sound'.

Malcolm Venter
Port Elizabeth 1975

NOTES

[1]Dr William Branford, Professor of Linguistics at Rhodes University in his book, A Manual of English Sentence Structure (1974).

[2]An English teacher who replied to a Questionnaire on the Teaching of English Grammar sent to Cape High School Teachers in 1973.

[3]His Short Introduction to English Grammar (1762) was brought out in a new and attractive edition by Maurice Aldridge of Rhodes University in 1973.

[4]His most famous book was his Language, published in 1933.

[5]Chomsky has subsequently modified many of the ideas published in this book, but the basic approach remains the same.

[6]Chapter One deals with the general approach of Transformational grammar. Basically, this approach is concerned with the following question, posed here by two American linguists, Jacobs and Rosenbaum, in their Grammar 1 (1967):

> 'Do you realise what you are doing at this very moment ? You are reading and understanding a sentence in English which you have never seen before and probably will never see again. In fact, every sentence in this book is a sentence which is new to you; yet you will know that they are all sentences in English. A very important question for you to think about is this: If you have never seen any of the sentences in this book before, how can you understand them ? One simple answer could be that you understand them because you know English. But this answer is not good enough. It doesn't tell "how" you understand English sentences, or "how" you create them. This book is all about the "how" of the English language.'

This 'how' is what we call 'Grammar'. Grammar is thus regarded as a description of the internal mechanism that enables a speaker of his language to produce and understand the sentences of his language. This mechanism cannot be regarded as something like a tape recorder which merely records sentences and then plays them back later when we need them. This would not be able to account for the fact that we are able to produce and understand new sentences. It must be seen as some-thing more creative - a set of rules that enables us to combine all sorts of elements in many different ways.

There are two main aspects of this knowledge:

1. How to combine words to form the 'kernel' or basic type of sentence.
2. How to 'transform' the kernel into the more complicated types of sentences.

[7]Fowler, R. (1971): An Introduction to Transformational Syntax, RKP.

[8]See especially the textbooks of Paul Roberts. E.g. English Sentences (1962), English Syntax (1964) and the Roberts English Series (1967) (all published by Harcourt, Brace & World). These, together with the text mentioned earlier by Jacobs & Rosenbaum (published by Ginn & Co.) are excellent reference books for English teachers.

[9]For further comments on this, see the following articles:

Venter, M.G.: 'Creative Writing - Every Child's Cup of Tea ?' (Education, March 1973)

'Creative Writing Again' (Education, May 1973)

CHAPTER ONE

WHAT IS 'GRAMMAR' ?

1.1 Definition

Read the following carefully, and then say which of them you would regard as acceptable sentences - i.e. which of them would you yourself be likely to produce and be able to understand.

(1) Your fat dog sat on my new record yesterday.

(2) Pig jumped the.

(3) Blue occurrences are mighty.

(4) Pimples are most unpleasant.

(5) Scribbles Johnny pencil a with ?

(6) Sleeps Stoffels ?

It is most likely that you would definitely reject numbers (2) and (5) out= right, and accept without hesitation numbers (1) and (4). You might ponder over (3) and (6), and possibly come to the conclusion that you can half-accept them as 'semi-sentences'.

The question which arises from this is: How is it that you know which of the above are acceptable sentences and which are not ? In other words, how are you able to produce acceptable sentences of your own and to understand those produced by someone else ? The answer is quite simple: you 'know' the language; it is your knowledge of English which enables you to do all this. Every time you produce or understand a sentence you are using the knowledge you have of your language. Of course, you are not usually aware of the fact that you are using your knowledge; because you have been learning your language from a very early age this knowledge has become unconscious - like your knowledge as to how to walk or to ride a bicycle. If you try to learn a foreign language, you suddenly become aware of the need to 'know' the language. For instance, try to decide which of the following is an acceptable sentence:

(7) Du bist ein Dummkopf.

(8) Halte du dein Mund!

As a matter of fact, both of these are acceptable sentences, but this you can tell only if you 'know' German. In the same way, you can use English only because you have a knowledge of it.

Now, because your knowledge of your language is unconscious you cannot explain what this knowledge is and how you use it. In order to be able to do this, you would need to set about looking at how sentences work

and then deduce from this the rules you must have in your mind which enable you to produce and understand the sentences of the language. This study of the language which enables you to become conscious of your intuitive linguistic knowledge is called grammar.[1] By the end of this book it is hoped that you will have some idea of what makes it possible for you to use your language each day.

1.2 Why study Grammar ?

It could be argued, in terms of the definition given above, that Grammar is a 'useless' subject. This subject is meant to make you conscious of what you already 'know' unconsciously. If you can speak and write without having to study Grammar, then why must you study it in schools ?

Perhaps the reasons will become clearer if you consider how often and for what purposes you use your language in your lifetime. Someone once said of the man in the street:

> 'From the moment he switches on an early-morning broadcast until he falls asleep at night over a novel or magazine, he is, like all other people living in modern civilised conditions, swimming in words.'[2]

If you try to think of all the purposes for which you use your language, you will find that they are infinite. Here are some of them: you read newspapers, write letters, watch a movie, listen to speeches, read posters and advertisements, argue about homework, express your love, ask for more money, give orders, listen to the words of a song, call your dog, explain how to bake a cake, call out to the wing on a hockey field, persuade your friend to buy you some peanuts, compose a poem; and so on, and so on. You will probably be able to appreciate the value of all this to you as an individual if you try to imagine what it would be like not to have language.

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[1] In modern Linguistics the word 'Grammar' is also used to refer to the actual rules in the speaker's mind. Every person that is, is regarded as 'having' a grammar. Thus 'grammar' means both the rules a speaker has and the description of these rules by a grammarian. However, in order to avoid the confusion that can result from this ambiguity, the word is here used in the second sense only.

[2] Hayakawa, S.I. (1952/1966): Language in Thought and Action, George Allen and Unwin. (An excellent book for language work.)

Furthermore, at a more general level, man's use of language makes it possible to co-operate. A very simple example is someone shouting 'Duck!' to you as a bullet comes flying in your direction. At a more sophisticated level, war has been avoided by negotiation. Language is also a means of pooling knowledge. One man can pass on his discoveries to others in his time and to succeeding generations. Our modern world would not be a modern world if it were not for this fact.

Now, there are at least two reasons for studying Grammar that arise from a consideration of these facts:

1.2.1 If your language is such an essential tool in your everyday life and the history of the civilised world, it follows that the more effective your mastery of it, the better it will be for you and for mankind. Now, even if you do already know a great deal, you do not know everything. When we talk of the 'Grammar' of English we mean a description of an ideal knowledge of an ideal speaker. However, there is no person with an ideal knowledge of his language. Therefore, when you compare the Grammar we study with your own particular knowledge of English, you will find that yours is far from perfect, and is therefore capable of improvement.

You will find, for instance, that you will come across facts that you do not know - i.e. your linguistic knowledge is incomplete. There are certain facts of English that you have either never learnt or you have forgotten. For example, some of you might not know the meaning or spelling of the word facetious; yet this is a very useful word for your sentence-production and sentence-interpretation, since it is used quite commonly. By adding this word to your vocabulary, you are therefore improving your linguistic knowledge and thereby your command of English.

Furthermore, even what you do know is sometimes wrong, i.e. your linguistic knowledge is faulty. Over the years, as you learnt your language unconsciously, you picked up some incorrect facts because you heard other people speaking incorrectly. For example, you might mispronounce the word mischievous or think that it is correct to say, 'One of the apples are bad.'

Compare this with a person who is learning to play chess: he knows the basic rules of the game, but there are certain moves he does not yet know, and he may also be mistaken about some of the rules. By studying the rules he can improve his knowledge of, and performance in, the game of chess.

We can perhaps, then, see why Sir Winston Churchill had the following to say about the study of English Grammar:

> 'I would make all boys learn English; and then I would let the clever ones learn Latin as an honour and Greek as a treat. But the only thing I would whip them for is not knowing English. I would whip them hard for that.'[3]

Churchill was one of the world's greatest masters of the English tongue this century has seen. His speeches won him the top political post in Britain; they rallied the British people when they were ready to give in; and struck fear into the hearts of thousands of Nazis.[4] And Churchill always attributed his great knowledge of English to the English Grammar he was taught at school. We can't all become Churchills, but we can at least try to develop our own ability to use our language to the full.

1.2.2 A philosopher by the name of Benjamin Whorf, struck by the variety of uses of language and by the complexity of the structures involved, came to the conclusion that 'language is the best show that man puts on'. In fact, man's ability to use language is the main quality that separates him from the beast; for it is only man that is capable of putting on this show.

Surely, if at school we study how our lungs work, how pollen is formed, what water is made of, we should look at this remarkable instrument called language. In Grammar, we are not only trying to improve your ability to use your language; we are also trying to give you an idea of how you are able to use the complicated structures of language for so many purposes. In other words, we study Grammar not only for its usefulness, but also for its own sake, as something vitally interesting and relevant to man - especially modern man.

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[3] Winston Churchill: My Early Life.

[4] Perhaps the best way to appreciate this is to listen to some of Churchill's speeches. They are available on record: Winston Churchill: Authorized Recordings of His Actual Speeches, edited by E. Murrow & F. Friendly (Columbia - KOL 7000).

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER ONE

1. Explain, in your own words, what you understand by the word 'Grammar'.

2. 'When I speak, I don't say to myself: "Now I'm going to use a verb, and now a preposition." I really can't see the sense of studying Grammar if I can speak and write without it.'

   Would you accept this as a tenable argument? Give reasons for your answer.

3. State, for each of the following whether it is grammatical (G) or ungrammatical (U). (Probably you would not be able to explain why some are ungrammatical. It would be interesting if you returned to this exercise when you have reached, say, half-way in this book, and then saw whether you could explain in grammatical terms what is wrong with these sentences. For the moment, simply use your intuitive knowledge to decide which are ungrammatical.)

   a) The school elected head prefect William Humphreys.
   b) Take care when you cross the racetrack.
   c) Milton the banana ate.
   d) Rosey has enormous eyes.
   e) These curtains have torn apart.
   f) Never Anthony tells lies.
   g) Aunt Filigreen an ugly woman.
   h) Stoffels burnt the wood to ashes.
   i) He saw the it.
   j) He saw the soft.
   k) That new house is going to collapse.
   l) Round rugby balls do not eat meat.

CHAPTER TWO

THE ELEMENTS OF GRAMMAR

2.1 We said in Chapter One that our linguistic knowledge enables us to produce and understand sentences in our language. A further - and even more remarkable - fact is that we are able to produce and understand new sentences - i.e. sentences we have never heard before. For example, the sentence you are reading and understanding at this very moment is new to you. In fact, if you were to pick up a book and look at the sentences on the first page, you would find that most of the sentences we produce and understand are new. The number of different sentences, therefore, that we are capable of handling must be vast - probably infinite.

It follows from this that your mind can't possibly operate like a tape recorder that records hundreds of actual sentences and then plays them back when you need them. Firstly, there are simply too many sentences to be recorded; secondly, this would not explain your ability to deal with new sentences. We must assume that our minds are creative - they take all sorts of bits and pieces and combine them in thousands of different ways as we require them.

If, then, we look at our linguistic knowledge, we must assume that it cannot be a mere list of sentences we have heard: it must contain lists of units together with rules for combining them in numerous ways.

2.2 We are now going to look at what these 'units' are, and at how they are combined. We may start off by looking at the following command:

(1) Desist from your loquacity forthwith!

This sentence may be difficult to understand; and it is unlikely that you would have produced such a sentence yourself. The reason is that there are some difficult words present:

'desist'	=	stop
'loquacity'	=	talkativeness
'forthwith'	=	immediately

The sentence, then, means more or less: 'Be quiet immediately!'

You can see from this that WORDS are one language unit or element that you need to know to produce and understand utterances. This can also be seen if you try to make out what the following string means:

(2) Mymother'sauntisveryillandwillprobablydie.

The problem here is that you need to sort out the individual words first. Similarly, if you listen to someone speaking a foreign language which you know vaguely, you will find it difficult to follow if he speaks fast. One of the main reasons for this is that the utterance sounds like one con= tinuous stream of noise because you cannot separate the words being used. Thus, in using language we are basically working with strings of words. We may call this our 'verbal' knowledge -- knowledge of words.

Now read this:

(3) Onions threw boy girl the the at pale the.

Even though here the words are clearly separated and the meaning of each is known to you, this string as it stands does not make sense - i.e. you cannot 'understand' it; nor, for that matter, would you ever 'produce' such a string. In other words, our knowledge of our language does not merely consist of words alone; for then we would utter such disorganised strings of words as in (3). In order to understand a string like the above one, you have to re-arrange it into proper sentence form - you have to impose an invisible structure on the string of words. This form or structure is what we call the 'sentence', and it is produced in terms of regular rules, e.g. 'the' comes before words like 'boy' or 'girl', and so on. This know= ledge can be called our syntactic knowledge -- our knowledge of sentences.

You might compare your knowledge to the procedure for a chemical experiment: the words are like the chemicals; the rules of sentence structure are like the instructions; and the sentence like the final compound.

The way we learn our language, then, is not to absorb complete sentences which we later remember in production or understanding. Instead, as we hear people speak, and as we read, our minds sift out the words and the ways in which words are combined into sentences. These units and rules for combining them - not actual sentences - are what are recorded. Then later when we wish to produce a sentence, we recall the words we learnt and the rules whereby we combine them; using this we produce the sentence we want.

2.3 Summary

Grammar is the study of our linguistic knowledge - i.e. the knowledge enabling us to produce and understand the sentences of our language. This knowledge concerns the organisation of words into sentences; it consists of both verbal and syntactic knowledge.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER TWO

1. If you compare your linguistic knowledge with a cookery recipe, what would you compare with:

   a) the ingredients;
   b) the instructions;
   c) the cake ?

2. If you look back at the ungrammatical sentences in Exercise 3 of Chapter One, you will see that many of them are ungrammatical because, although they consist of words, they do not follow the normal word-order of sentences. Later on we shall be looking at the rules of word-order and then we shall be able to indicate more specifically what is wrong with the word-order of these sentences.

   For the moment, simply unscramble any of the following strings of words which you feel need re-arranging to form acceptable sentences:

   a) greedily mouse cheese the green the chewed
   b) park goose the the in in swam pond the
   c) the silly old frog ate its toes
   d) aunt waffles many made my night last
   e) my mother slipped on the soap in the bathroom last night

CHAPTER THREE

BASIC SENTENCE STRUCTURE

3.1 In Exercise 2 of Chapter Two you were asked to unscramble any strings of words you felt needed re-arranging. Number (1) was one of these:

(1) aunt waffles many made my night last

The proper sentence is:

(2) My aunt made many waffles last night.

As we said in the last chapter, it is not enough merely to know the words of a language; you must also know how to put these words into sentences. And this latter task is not done haphazardly - sentences are ordered combinations of words.

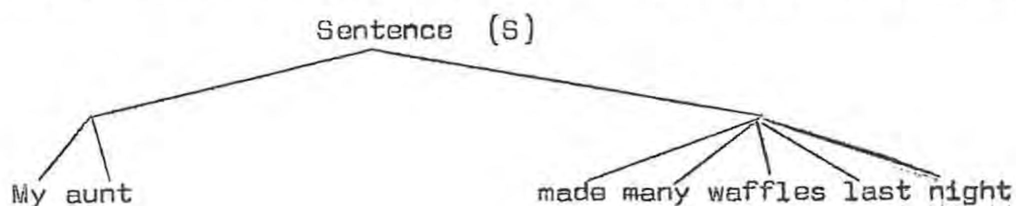
The fact that you 'knew' that number (1) needed unscrambling and that you were able to arrive at the correct structure is further proof that you, as a speaker of English, have as part of your linguistic knowledge a set of sentence-combining (or 'syntactic')rules. In this chapter we shall begin our study of these syntactic rules. We are trying to answer the question, What is it that we know which enables us to combine words to form accept= able English sentences?

3.2 Let us begin by trying to divide sentence (2) above into two parts. Which of the following divisions would you accept as the best ?

(a)	My	aunt made many waffles last night.
(b)	My aunt	made many waffles last night.
(c)	My aunt made	many waffles last night.

As a native speaker of English you most probably realised that the answer is (b). This is because your syntactic knowledge contains information about the grouping of words in sentences. The most basic aspect of your syntac= tic knowledge, then, is that it tells you to arrange words into <u>groups</u> (and not simply in one long string) and it tells you <u>how</u> to arrange them into these groups.

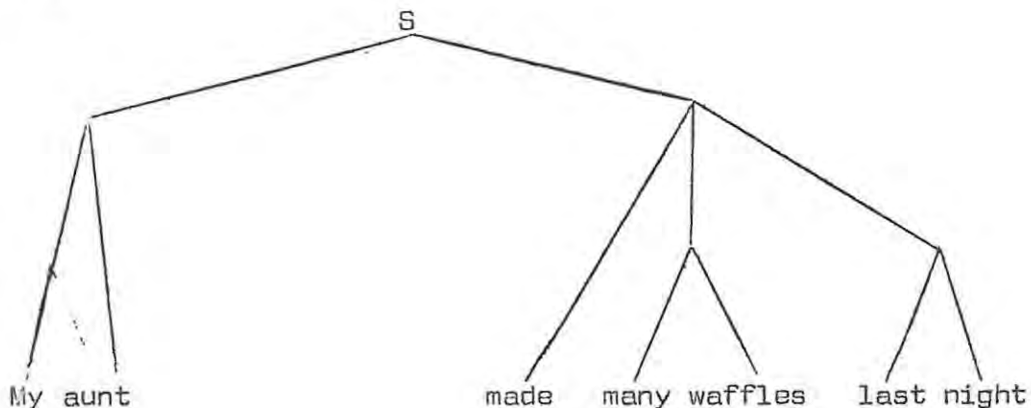
This aspect of our syntactic knowledge can be shown in the form of a diagram, which is called a 'branching-tree' diagram since it resembles a family tree:



If we now examine the right-hand branch of the tree more closely, we will find that it can be sub-divided into three pieces. Which of the following would you accept ?

(a)	made many	waffles	last night
(b)	made many waffles	last	night
(c)	made	many waffles	last night

The answer is, of course, (c). Your syntactic knowledge immediately tells you that 'many waffles' and 'last night' are two word groups, and that this therefore leaves 'made' on its own. In other words, not only do we arrange words into 2 major groups as we saw above; but we also arrange the words within these groups into a number of minor word-groups. This, the typical structure of all sentences, can also be shown in the form of a branching-tree diagram.



3.3 Would you accept the following version of sentence (2) ?

(3) Made many waffles last night my aunt

No ? - but why not ? The words are arranged into two major groups and a number of minor groups; yet the'sentence' is not acceptable. The reason is that major group 'my aunt' must come <u>before</u> the other major group. The two major groups, that is, must occur in a certain <u>order</u>.

On similar grounds you would not accept the following version of the second major group:

(4) Many waffles made last night

Not only must the major groups be in the correct order in the sentence, but also the minor groups must be placed in the correct order within the major groups.

Finally, at the level of the word, we see that these, too, must occur in the correct order. Therefore the following re-arrangement of the minor group

'many waffles' would be rejected:

(5) waffles many

We can conclude from all this, then, that not only do certain words belong together in groups - major and minor - but also that they must occur in a certain order as well. The two principles of sentence-structure involved here may be called GROUPING and ORDERING respectively.

NOW DO EXERCISES 1 - 3 AT THE END OF THIS CHAPTER.

3.4 In Exercise 3 of this chapter you were asked to say which of the given 'sentences' you would regard as acceptable English. All, at first glance, may appear to be acceptable. But on closer examination, sentence (2) stands out as clearly unacceptable. Why ? The answer seems to lie in the use of the word 'target' in this sentence. Yet why should this make the sentence incorrect ? After all, the words are organised into two major groups and a number of minor groups, and all words and groups are in the correct order. So there must still be something more which tells us that we would not produce this sentence. In addition to grouping and ordering, we must also know which words to put where i.e. which words can be used to fill the various 'slots' or positions in the various word-groups. There must, then, be syntactic rules in our linguistic knowledge which govern our choice of words in sentences; and it is these that tell us that the use of 'target' in this sentence is wrong. (Incidentally, if you look back to Exercise 3 of Chapter One, you will see that it is on this basis that you would have rejected sentences (i) and (j).)

Let us now take a look at these rules. Perhaps the best way to do so is to conduct the following experiment:

Look at the following list of words, and then follow the procedure below:

man; peacefully; may; cat; pig; must; tomorrow; the; sleep; frog; today; weasle; die; a; eat; mouse; tonight; will; woman; quietly; cry; dine.

a) Copy each of these words onto a separate piece of paper, fold up these pieces and place them in a box.

b) Next try forming six five-word sentences by drawing out five words at random each time. Write down the strings that result from this random selection.

You will find that most of the strings are not sentences. They are mere 'word salad' - like the strings you had to unscramble in Chapter Two.

c) Now take the following as a model:

THE PIG WILL DINE TOMORROW

Let us classify each of these words as a member of a different word-class:[1]

Class 1: the
Class 2: pig
Class 3: will
Class 4: dine
Class 5: tomorrow

Next take each of the words on your slips and try to substitute it in turn for the word 'the'. All the words that can be substi= tuted in this way belong to Class 1. Then try all the remaining words with 'pig', and so on, till by this process of substitution and elimination, you have classified or 'filed' each word into one of the five groups.

d) Using this, try forming sentences by making various combinations of words by selecting a word from each of the piles in the following order for each sentence:

class 1 class 2 class 3 class 4 class 5

Write them down in columns under these headings. These will be grammatical sentences.

e) Finally, try lengthening the lists by adding two words of your own that can be substituted for the words in each class.

It can be seen from this that our minds are like filing cabinets: on the basis of the thousands of sentences we have heard around us over the years, our minds have sorted out all the words we know into various classes. When we speak, we know that there are only certain words which can occur in certain places; thus the filing drawer from which we select a word is

[1]The term 'word-classes' has been used in place of the traditional term 'parts of speech', as it is more accurate, more modern and cannot be confused with the term 'figures of speech'.

determined by the particular position we want to fill. The word 'target' was used incorrectly in the sentence discussed above, because it does not belong in the drawer of words that function in that particular part of the sentence. (It might be noted in passing here that sometimes one word may occur in more than one drawer.)

This does not mean, of course, that you are consciously using this know= ledge. In the same way, you can breathe without knowing how your lungs work. This type of knowledge is what we call intuitive knowledge.

Nor does it mean that you have to know the names of the various word-classes in order to be able to speak and write - after all, a small child who has never heard of 'nouns' and 'verbs' can use his language quite adequately. These word-classes exist in our linguistic knowledge without any labels attached to them at all. When we study Grammar, we simply give them names for convenience' sake. Otherwise it would be rather difficult to talk about language. In the same way, it would be difficult to discuss the workings of the lungs without giving the various parts names. Imagine also trying to talk about the workings of a motor car engine without naming the various parts - even though the engine would work quite happily without having any of its parts christened!

3.5 Summary

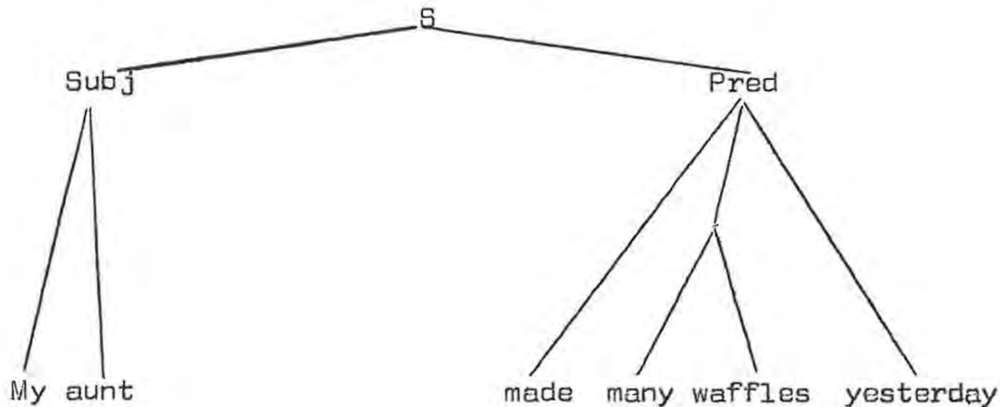
Our knowledge of sentences therefore consists of the following basic aspects:

1. grouping words in sentences;
2. ordering words and groups;
3. filing words into classes.

NOW DO EXERCISES 4 and 5.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER THREE

1. Explain the following diagram carefully in your own words:



2. Make a diagram to show the structure of each of the following sentences: (In each case, first find the two major groups and then the minor ones.)

   a) Courtesy costs nothing.
   b) I cannot bear sticky toffee.
   c) Rolling stones gather no moss.
   d) Roland could not find his pink shirt anywhere this morning.
   e) This poor little boy has been crying all day.

3. Which of the following would you accept as proper English sentences ?

   a) This table is rather rickety.
   b) My uncle must target tomorrow.
   c) This teacher understands his subject well.
   d) That pen is very old.

4. Why would you not accept the following ?

   Bertha has desked already.

5. What exactly do you understand by the term 'word-classes' ? What is their purpose ?

CHAPTER FOUR

THE KERNEL SENTENCE

4.1 ~~Kernel sentences~~

In the next few chapters we shall be looking more closely at the word-groups of which sentences are composed, as well as the various word-classes that these word-groups can contain.

This can perhaps best be done by examining the structure of very straight-forward sentences first, before proceeding to more complicated sentences. We shall therefore begin with simple statement sentences. These are called KERNEL sentences. The 'kernel' of a nut is the centre of it; in the same way, 'kernel' sentences are the centre of a Grammar. Everything in Grammar is studied in relation to the kernel sentence.

4.2 In Exercise 2 of Chapter Three you were asked to draw diagrams so as to show the structures of the given sentences. In each case you had to begin by first finding the two major word-groups. If you examine these carefully, you will find that, despite differences in structure, these word-groups respectively perform the same function in each of the sentences: in each case the second group refers to an action or being; and the first tells us who or what is responsible for this action, etc. The former word-group we say functions as PREDICATE, and the latter as SUBJECT.

Thus the first 'rule' of sentence structure that forms part of our linguistic knowledge is: a kernel sentence consists of a structure functioning as a Subject and a structure functioning as a Predicate - in that order. This can economically be summed up as follows:

S consists of Subj + Pred (where S stands for 'sentence').

The way to divide up a sentence into Subject and Predicate is as follows:

(a) Underline the word(s) which tell(s) us what action (or existence) is referred to.

(b) Then ask who or what was responsible for this action. The answer to this gives you the SUBJECT. (Remember that all the words that go together to answer this question form the subject, and not merely one or two of them.)

(c) Whatever remains is the PREDICATE. The predicate may be regarded as the 'rubbish-bin' of the sentence - the bin into which you throw anything which does not belong to the subject.

Take, for example, the following sentence:

(1) That rather silly frog must have eaten its sister yesterday.

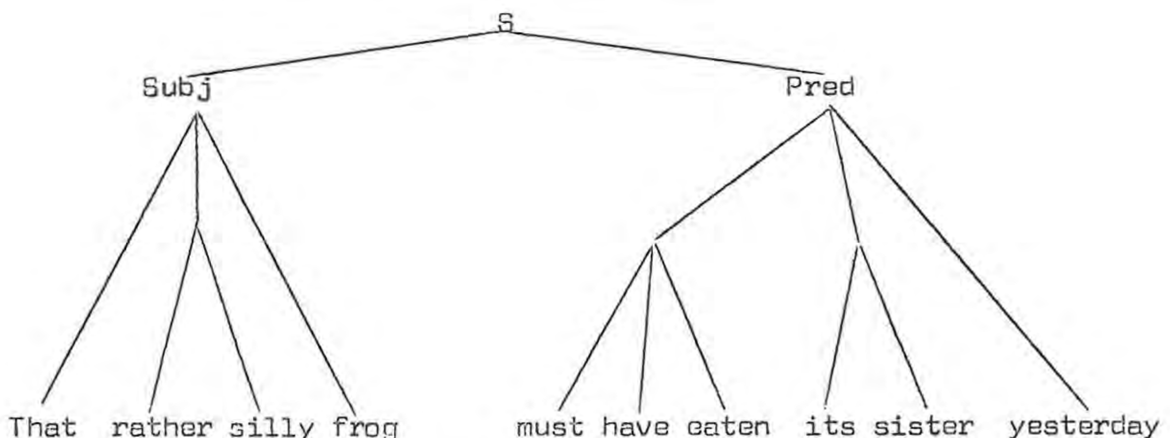
Let us apply each step in turn to this sentence:

(a) Underline the word 'eaten', since this tells us what action took place.

(b) Ask who or what performed the action of 'eating'. It is obvious that 'frog' tells us this, but if we work backwards from this word, we will find that 'silly' goes with 'frog'; that 'rather' goes with 'silly', and that 'That' goes with 'frog'. Thus the whole subject is 'That rather silly frog'.

(c) All the remaining words are the predicate. This is always put down in the order that sounds best. In this case, we can leave it exactly as it is: 'must have eaten its sister yesterday'.

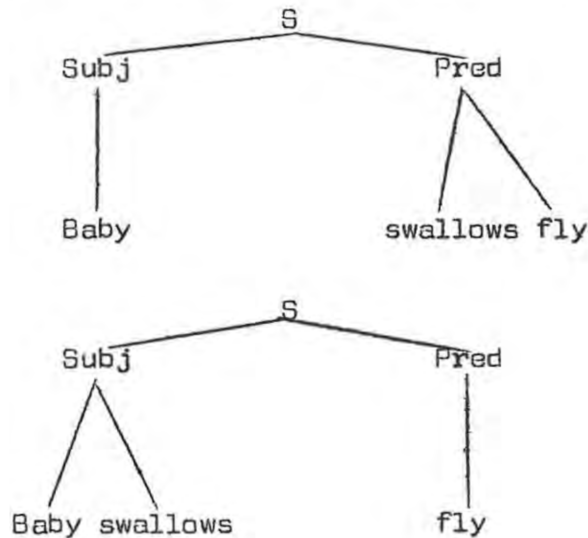
This can be shown in our branching-tree diagram:



4.3 Now read the following newspaper headline carefully:

(2) BABY SWALLOWS FLY

You will notice immediately that this headline is ambiguous, i.e. it has two meanings. The question is how do you know that it is ambiguous ? In everyday life we are not normally aware of how we can perceive this sort of thing - we simply do it automatically. One of the purposes of studying Grammar, we mentioned earlier, was to try to stop and find out what makes these automatic responses possible. In this case, the answer lies in the fact that, when your mind sets about dividing the headline into subject and predicate - as it does with all kernel sentences - it discovers that there are two, rather than the normal one, ways of dividing the sentence, and that each way produces a different meaning for the sentence:



4.4 To sum up: in understanding a sentence, our minds, using our linguistic knowledge, analyse the sentence into Subject and Predicate so as to show who is doing what. In producing a sentence, we choose a subject and a predicate and then combine them in the correct order.

In the next two chapters we shall look more closely at how we construct subjects, and in the three chapters following these, the rules for composing predicates.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER FOUR

1. The most important facts we must know about sentences concern simple statement sentences. These basic sentences are called .... sentences, because ....
....

2. What is the formula for this type of sentence ?

3. Divide each of the following sentences into subject and predicate in the same way as the example on page 16 has been done. (N.B. Even when the answer seems obvious, apply all three steps first.)

   (a) The shapely young lady waggled past sedately.
   (b) My old uncle died in the hospital last night.
   (c) They could have done it.
   (d) The rack is a most painful torture.
   (e) I do not like these people.
   (f) These people have no teeth.
   (g) Cuthbert was playing the piano sentimentally.
   (h) We all go to school in the morning every single day.
   (i) I find such types revolting.
   (j) Such types are revolting.

4. The following newspaper headlines are ambiguous (have two meanings):

   i) LIEUTENANT MASTERS CHEATS
   ii) COLONEL RAKES LEAVES
   iii) FRENCH NAVY TESTS ALARM

   For each:

   (a) Give the two possible meanings.
   (b) Explain clearly why each is ambiguous.

5. In the following well-known sayings we have separated the subjects, in the left-hand column, from their predicates, in the right-hand column, and muddled them. Sort them out so that each subject is paired off with its corresponding predicate, and explain the meaning of each saying.

   Example: Too many cooks .... spoil the broth.
   (If too many people try to assist in something, the whole job will be spoilt.)

	SUBJECTS	PREDICATES
(a)	Barking dogs	is the soul of wit
(b)	Brevity	needs no bush
(c)	Empty vessels	is the thief of time
(d)	Good wine	seldom bite
(e)	Procrastination	gives consent
(f)	Silence	make the most noise
(g)	The end	proves the rule
(h)	The exception	justifies the means
(i)	Many hands	was not built in a day
(j)	Rome	make light work

6. SUBJECTS tell us who or what performed the action expressed in the predicate.

(a) Complete each of the following subjects by choosing a word from the list below:

i) The ....showed the people to their seats.
ii) The brave ....finally conquered the angry bull.
iii) A ....sets up the type for printing newspapers.
iv) The short-sighted ....cut this window-pane too small.
v) The neat ....has drawn up the company's books accurately.

glazier; matador; compositor; accountant; usher.

(b) In each of the following, replace the underlined word-group in the subject with one word that means the same:

i) The old man who plays the piano died yesterday.
ii) That peculiar man who walks in his sleep fell off the roof-top last night.
iii) This person who always expects the worst to happen never smiles.
iv) The absent-minded doctor who performs operations mistakenly cut off the woman's head.
v) That person who deals in flowers suffers from hay-fever.

(c) Add any subject you like to each of the following predicates:

i) .... has eaten the peanuts.
ii) .... must sing tomorrow night.
iii) .... bit his toenails.
iv) .... found the noise unbearable.
v) .... is here.

7. PREDICATES tell us what action is performed by the subject.

(a) Add a predicate to each of the following subjects to explain what action is typically performed by these subjects:

i) That misogynist.....................
ii) A malingerer.......................
iii) A recluse..........................
iv) A polygamist.......................
v) A kleptomaniac.....................

(b) Examine the predicate in each of the following, and then say which of the people in the subjects you approve of and which you disapprove of. Do this is two columns headed: approve disapprove.

i) Tony molests smaller children.
ii) Sofie ostracized her sister.
iii) Mrs van Heerden condoned my errors.
iv) Uncle Sebastian embezzled a large sum of money.
v) The old man buried the hatchet.

(c) Add any predicate you like to each of the following subjects:

i) Milton................
ii) The old lady...........
iii) The fat dog...........
iv) That silly child..........

8. (a) Make up any five kernel sentences. (Remember, there must be only one word describing action or existence; and your sentence must be a statement sentence.)

(b) Now write a short paragraph on 'Dracula', consisting only of kernel sentences.

(c) Take the topic 'Mandy's Misfortunes'. Start with the kernel sentence, 'One day Mandy set out to school', and then continue the story by letting each person in the class add a kernel sentence orally.

(d) You might have heard the game Just a Minute on the radio. The following game with kernel sentences is based on this:

Appoint a chairman, as well as five other speakers, and let them come to the front of the class. It will be best if they face the class, sitting in a semi-circle of desks.

The game will then be played as follows:

i) The chairman will start by giving the first speaker a topic. This speaker must then speak for a minute on this topic. But he must speak only in kernel sentences and must not hesitate, deviate, or repeat himself at any stage.

ii) If at any time the speaker hesitates, deviates, repeats himself or uses a non-kernel sentence, any other of the speakers on the panel may challenge him. (Each speaker must, before the game starts, choose a certain sound which he will make as a signal

to the chairman if he wants to challenge. During the game, the chairman will decide who challenged first.)

iii) If the chairman disagrees with the challenge, the speaker is awarded one point, and the speaker carries on for the time which is left of the minute.

iv) If the chairman agrees to the challenge, the challenger is awarded one point, and he then takes over (still on the same topic) for the time remaining.

v) So the minute goes on, and the person who happens to be speak= ing when the minute is up gains two points.

vi) At the end, the person with the highest total (gained from challenging successfully, being unsuccessfully challenged, and speaking when the minute is up) wins the game.

9. Fill in <u>one</u> word in each of the blanks in each of the following sentences:

i) .... arrived.
ii) The .... has arrived.
iii) A .... has arrived.
iv) An .... has arrived.

CHAPTER FIVE

THE SUBJECT (1)

5.1 In the Exercises of Chapter Four, you were asked to suggest words to fill in the blanks in Question 9. Your answers could have included words such as the following:

(1) Suzie has arrived.

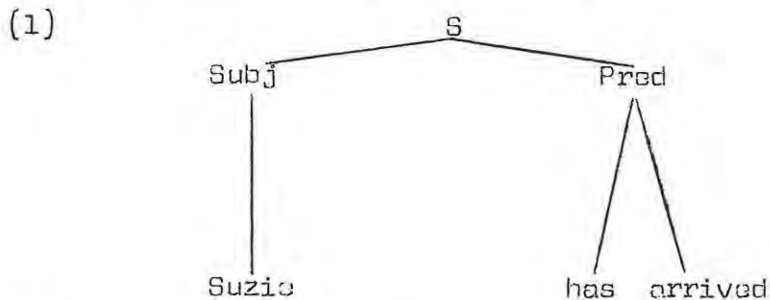
(2) The pig has arrived.

(3) A bird has arrived.

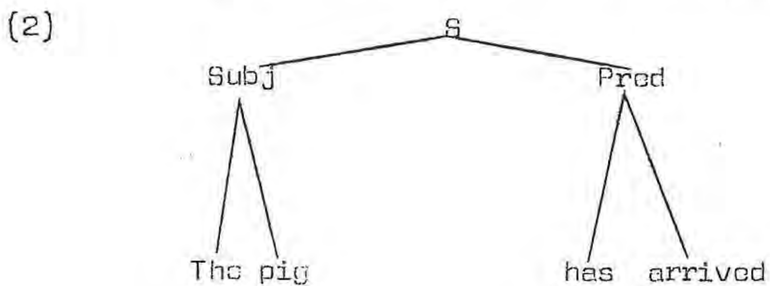
(4) An idiot has arrived.

Each of these can be divided into subject and predicate as follows:

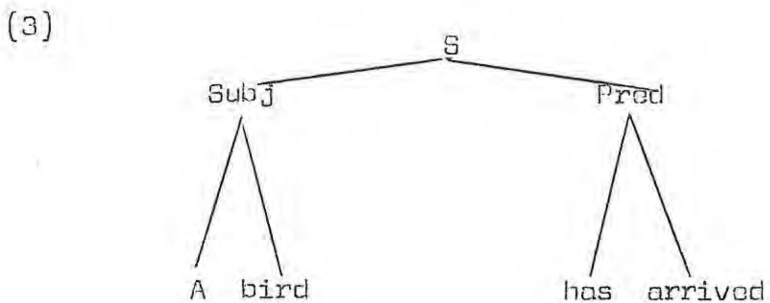
(1)



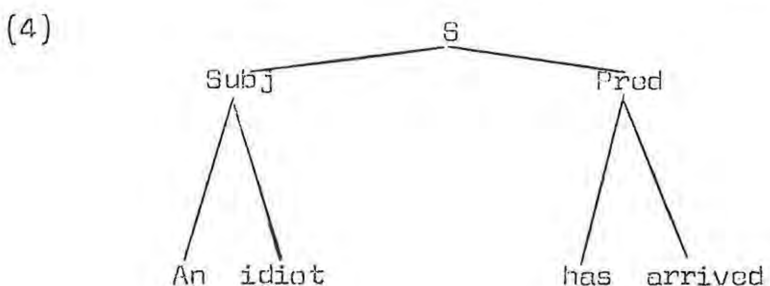
(2)



(3)



(4)

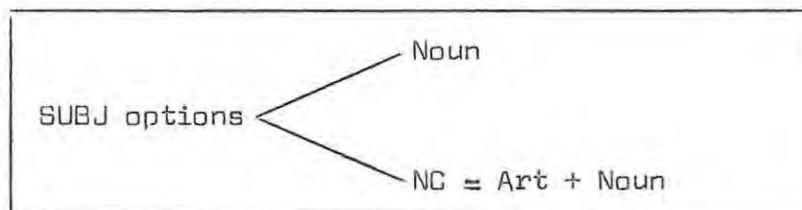


5.2 If you examine the subjects, you will find that there are two classes of words present:

(a) Those that were filled in - Suzie, pig, bird and idiot. All of these words name people or animals that perform the action of arriving. These words are the key-words of the subjects, since they are the main words telling us who or what per= formed the action. We say that they function as subject-words and we call them nouns.

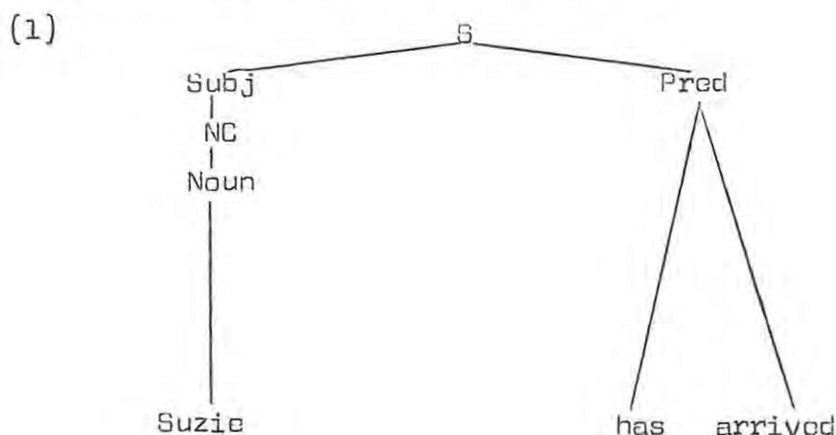
(b) Those that were given in the original exercise - the, a and an. These words are obviously not as important as the nouns. Their function is to qualify (explain) the nouns, and we call them articles (abbreviated to Art). Note that not all nouns have to be preceded by articles.

Thus to form a subject we can choose either a noun on its own, or a noun preceded by an article. This article + noun combination is called a noun cluster (NC). These two options for the subject can be summarised as follows:

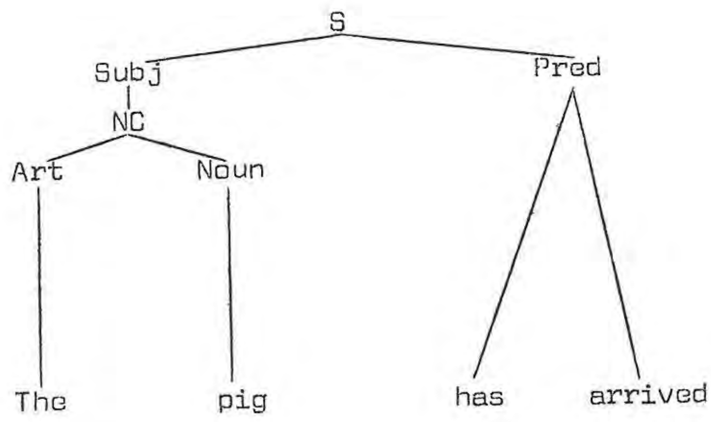


The detailed subjects can also be shown in tree diagrams. For example, sentence (1) and (2) would be done as follows:

(1)



(2)

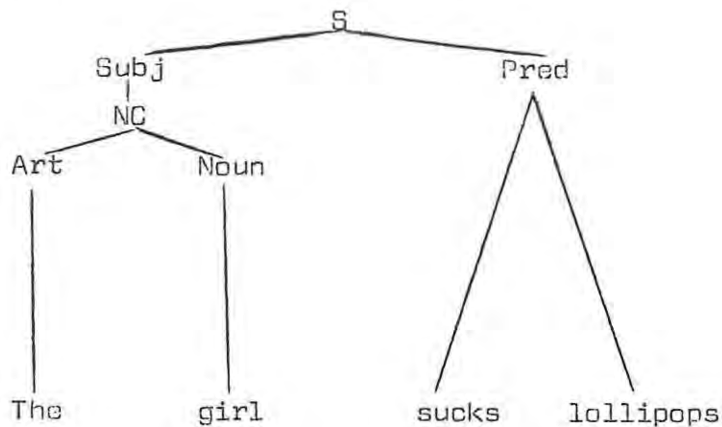


EXERCISES ON CHAPTER FIVE

1. Explain carefully in you own words the options for the subject.

2. Draw a tree diagram for each of the following sentences, showing only the subject in detail.[1]

Example: The girl sucks lollipops



(a) Truth is the safest lie.
(b) The rack is a most painful torture.
(c) Ignatius snored.
(d) Cows are contented creatures.
(e) A rat attacked the cat.

3. (a) Explain the difference in meaning between the following:
   (i) A pig arrived.
   (ii) The pig arrived.

   (b) When do we use a and when do we use an ?

   (c) How do you pronounce the word the in each of the following ? -
   (i) The mouse squealed.
   (ii) The idiot squealed.

[1]Functions are not asked for here. If, however, the teacher would prefer to have functions included, the easiest way is to number the words and then list the functions alongside the appropriate numbers in a list below the diagram.

4. (a) What common idea links the nouns functioning as subject-word in each of the following ? -

 (i) The apprentice is here.
 (ii) The novice is here.
 (iii) The recruit is here.
 (iv) The undergraduate is here.

 (b) To what kind of person does the subject-word in each of the following refer ? -

 (i) The introvert arrived.
 (ii) The altruist arrived.
 (iii) A bigot arrived.
 (iv) The philistine arrived.
 (v) A sadist arrived.

CHAPTER SIX

THE SUBJECT (2)

6.1 We have outlined the basic, minimum type of subject: a noun or a noun cluster. The latter consists of an article plus a noun. In both cases the noun functions as subject-word. However, there are certain optional additions that can be made to a noun cluster. You might compare the basic structure with the essential ingredients of a cake, and the optional parts with extra fancy decorations which are not necessary but which make the cake more interesting.

6.1.1 For example, what word would you fill in the following blank so as to expand the subject of sentence (1) ?

(1) The .... pig has arrived.

Obviously you would add any word like: fat, thin, dirty, etc. Thus we could expand sentence (2) to read:

(2) The fat pig has arrived.

This has the effect of telling the listener more about the pig - we know that it is a fat one. Words which can be added to nouns to tell us more about the things to which they refer belong to a class called Adjectives, which we can abbreviate to Adj. We say that an adjective qualifies a noun.

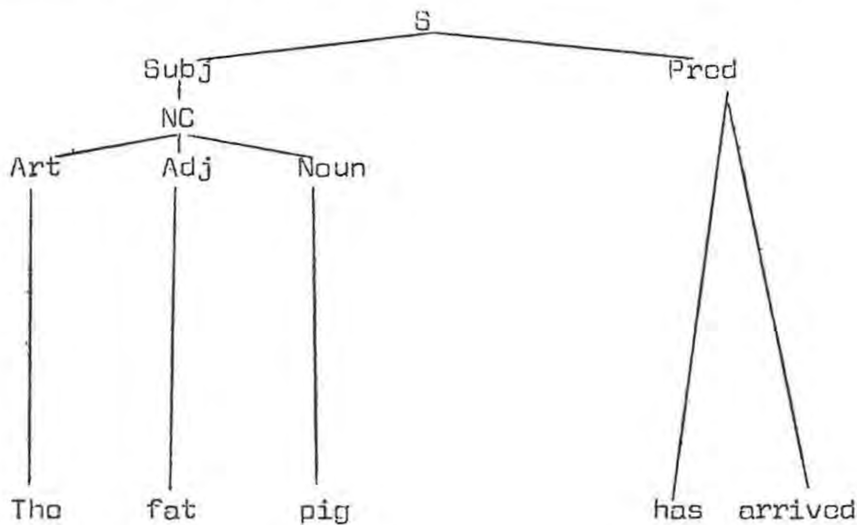
If you wanted to include this in a tree diagram, you would proceed as follows:

(1) Divide the sentence into subject and predicate (see page 16).
(The fat pig / has arrived.)

(2) Analyse the subject as follows:
(a) If it consists of only one word, that word will be a noun.
(b) If it consists of more than one word, this is a noun cluster. Now proceed as follows:
(i) Underline the noun, which is usually the last word. (In this case, 'pig'.)

(ii) Then work out the rest of the noun cluster by working backwards, each time finding out the function of the word in relation to the noun. Any word (except the, a and an, which are the only articles) which qualifies the noun is an adjective. (Thus 'the' is an article, and 'fat' is an adjective.) ~~Any word which modifies an adjective is a modifier.~~

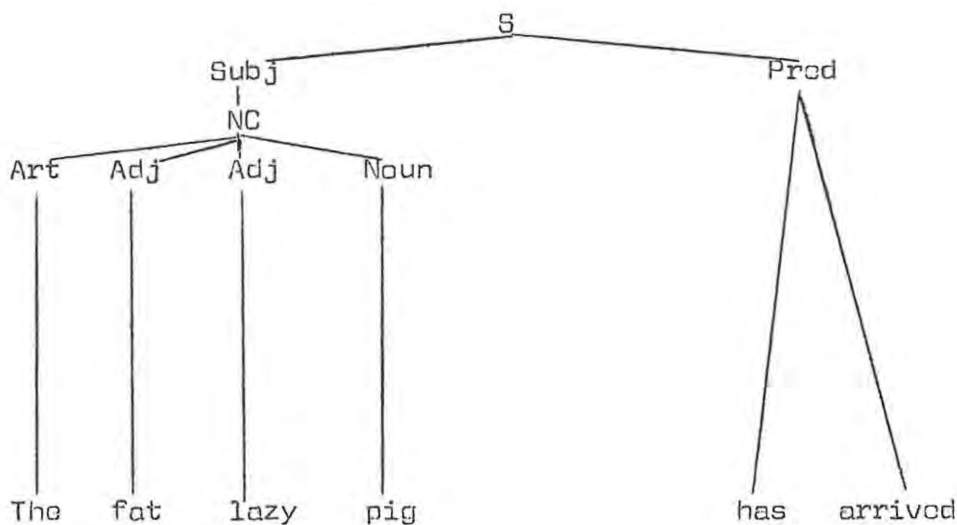
(3) Draw the tree:



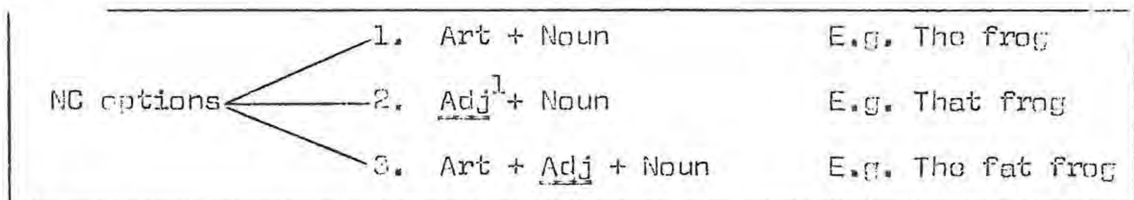
Note that, instead of putting in only one adjective to qualify the noun, you could add two or more. The result would be that you would then be telling your listener even more about the pig. Thus you might say:

(3) The fat, lazy pig has arrived.

This would produce the following tree diagram:



Our rules for the noun cluster must now be enlarged:

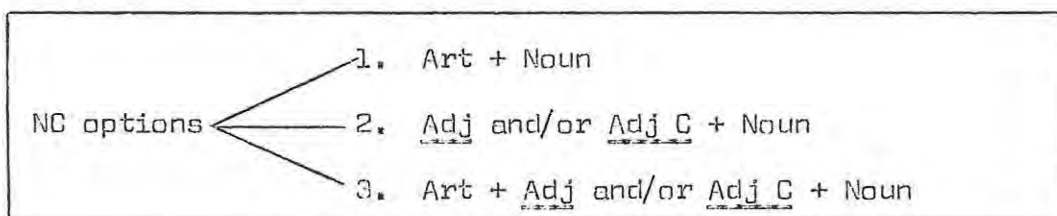


This means the noun cluster must have a noun, and with the noun one can have either an article or an adjective or both.

6.1.2 We can expand the noun cluster even further. We said above that it was a 'fat' pig that arrived. But we may want to know whether the pig was slightly fat, very fat or extremely fat. One way of conveying this information is to add a word which modifies the meaning of the adjective, telling the degree to which the creature possesses this quality of fatness. Such words we call modifiers, abbreviated to Mod.[2] Their function is to modify adjectives. Thus a subject like 'The very fat pig' consists of a noun cluster: it has a noun as subject word; this word is qualified by an adjective and an article; and the adjective is modified by a modifier. The **structure** of this noun cluster is as follows:

Art + Mod + Adj + Noun

The modifier and its adjective form a cluster which qualifies the noun as a whole. We call this an adjectival cluster (Adj C). Note that it is possible to have both an adjectival cluster and an adjective, and that one can have more than one modifier. Thus the options for the noun cluster must again be expanded:



This means that there must be a noun, and the noun must be preceded by either an article or an adjective and/or adjectival cluster (in any order), or both adjective and/or adjectival cluster. We can show this in a diagram:

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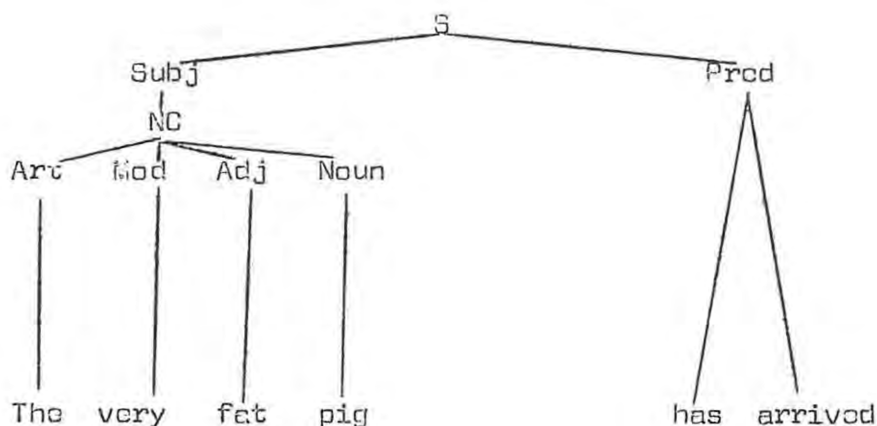
[1]Any underlined item can be repeated.

[2]This is usually called an 'Adverb of Degree'. However, it is preferable to keep the term 'Adverb' only for the words 'added' to the 'verb'.



6.2 Read the following pair of sentences:

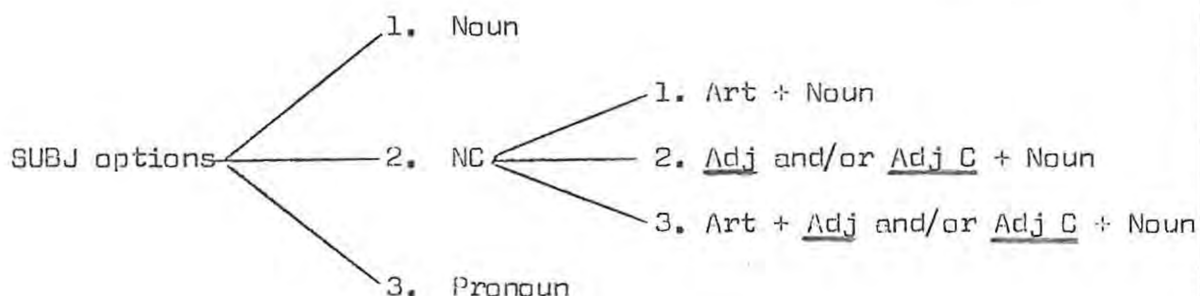
(4) The very fat pig has arrived. The very fat pig wants its food.

This reads and sounds very awkward, since you repeat so many words. It is possible to say the following instead:

(5) The very fat pig has arrived. It wants its food.

Here the word 'It' replaces the whole noun cluster in the subject. There are other words (e.g. he, she, they, etc.) which can be used to replace nouns and noun clusters. We call such words pronouns, since they stand in the place of (= pro) nouns.

Now we see that, instead of having a noun as subject-word, or a noun cluster containing a noun as subject-word, we can have a pronoun as subject-word. Thus, our options for the subject must be expanded finally as follows:



Adj C = Mod + Adj

We must now finally expand our rules for drawing the diagram for the subject:

(1) Divide the sentence into subject and predicate (see page 16).

(2) Analyse the subject as follows:

  (a) If it consists of only one word, that word will be a noun or a pronoun.

  (b) If it consists of more than one word, this is a noun cluster. Now proceed as follows:

    (i) Underline the noun, which is usually the last word.

    (ii) Then work out the rest of the noun cluster by working backwards, each time finding out the function of the word in relation to the noun. Any word (except the, a and an, which are the only articles) which qualifies the noun is an adjective. Any word which modifies an adjective is a modifier.

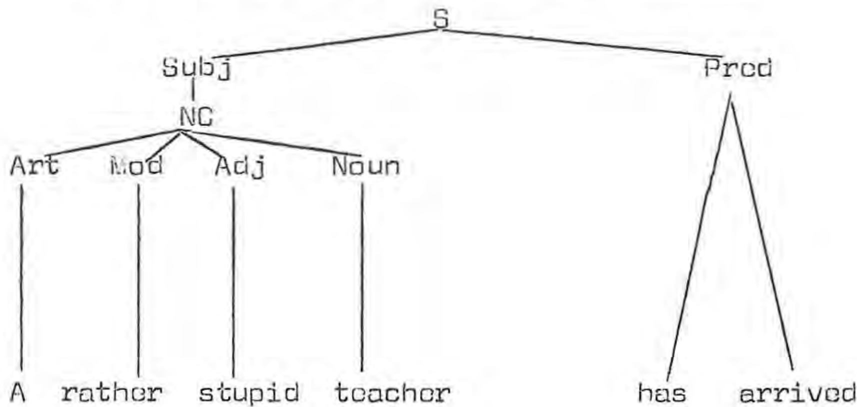
(3) Draw the tree.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER SIX

1. How many options exactly are there altogether for the subject ? Give an example of each.

2. Draw a tree diagram for each of the foll wing sentences, showing only the subject in detail.

   Example: A rather stupid teacher has arrived.



   a) A loud woman can be very unpleasant.
   b) They hate me.
   c) My old, decrepit aunt sent me a chocolate.
   d) Turkish Delight is delicious.
   e) Three mad cats shrieked all night.
   f) Each child must do his own work.
   g) This rather stupid, sentimental song is on the hit parade.

3. The following sentences would not be completely understood by an English= man; since the subject-word in each case is a South African English (SAE) noun, an Englishman would not know who or what is performing the action expressed in the predicate.

   What British English noun would you suggest to him as an alternative in each case ?

   a) That fat little gogga eats plants.
   b) Braaivleis gives me heartburn.
   c) This small, skinny skelm always steals my lunch.
   d) The new bioscope has very bright carpets inside.
   e) Our red stoep shines in the sunlight.
   f) That same robot catches me every time.

4. Suggest an interesting adjective for each of the following blanks:

   a) The .... sky grew overcast.
   b) The rather .... man dieted.
   c) A ....leaf drifted to the ground.
   d) The .... wind swept across the field.
   e) The .... waves crashed on the shore.

5. When using pronouns, one important point to remember is that it must be clear as to whom it is referring.

   In each of the following sentences, the underlined pronoun could refer to two persons or things. State what two persons or things each could refer to, and re-write in any way so that the sentence has only one meaning.

   E.g. The rat ate the cheese. It was rotten.
   = 'It' could refer to the rat or the cheese.
   The rat ate the rotten cheese.

   a) Simon arrived with Boesman. He felt ill.
   b) Lydia slapped her mother. She was nuts.

6. Complete the following sentence so that the subject consists of:
   Art + AdjC + Adj + Noun.

   Do this twice, according to the following requirements:

   a) about someone you like;
   b) about someone you dislike.

   .... is here.

CHAPTER SEVEN

THE PREDICATE (1)

.1 Read the following sentences:

(1) Maria wriggles.

(2) Maria will wriggle.

(3) Stoffels sleeps.

(4) Stoffels is sleeping.

If you examine the predicates of these two sentences, you will see that there are two types of words present:

(a) Those that MUST be present - like wriggle and sleep. In fact, the smallest predicate is one that consists of only a word like these - e.g. sentences (1) and (3). The main characteristic of these words is that they all tell us above all else about the action or existence of the subject.

(b) Those that do NOT have to be present - like will and is. These words help the main word to express its meaning.

Both of these types of words are called verbs, but we can see that there are two types of verbs - main[1] verbs (the first type mentioned above) and auxiliary verbs (the second type; so called because the word 'auxiliary' means 'helping'.)

Together, these verbs form a verb cluster,[2] which thus consists of a main verb, which must be present, and one or more auxiliary verbs, which may be present. Sometimes a verb cluster can be quite long. For example, note the cluster in the following:

(5) Simon could have been being eaten.

In working out which verb is which, the following differences between main and auxiliary verbs can be borne in mind:

(a) If there is only one verb, ~~in the cluster,~~ this must be a main verb, since this is the only type of verb which must be present.

(b) If there is more than one verb, the main verb is the one which

---

[1] These are initially all called main verbs, no matter what form they take - participial, infinitival, etc.

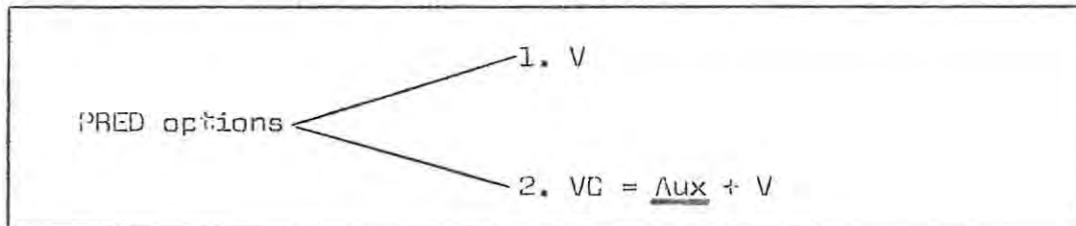
[2] Traditionally called the 'finite verb'.

i) comes last in the cluster

ii) and expresses most clearly the action or existence of the subject.

All the others that remain are auxiliary verbs.

The first and most important rule of the predicate is, then, that it must contain a main verb, either on its own or, together with one or more auxiliary verbs, forming a verb cluster. The options for the predicate discussed so far can be summarised in the form of a basic rule:



Note, however, that this is not all that one may have in a predicate: sentence (6), for example, also has the words 'the fire' in its predicate:

(6) Albert lit the fire.

There are many other types of structures that can also occur in the predicate after the verb or verb cluster. For the moment, we are not concerned with these.

7.2 Each of these verbs obviously serves a function in the sentence. These may be summed up as follows:

(a) A main verb forms the predicate-word of the sentence; that is, it is the most important word in the predicate.

(b) An auxiliary verb helps the main verb; that is, it helps it to express its meaning.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER SEVEN

1. What are the options we have mentioned so far for the predicate ? Give and example of each.

2. Write down the verb or the verb cluster from each of the following and underline the main verb:

   a) Tertius has been eating apples all night.
   b) Stoffels dances extremely well.
   c) Grishkin will sing tomorrow night.
   d) That old woman must have gone to the hospital.

3. Sometimes the *same* verb can occur as a main *or* auxiliary verb. State, for each of the following, whether the verb in italics is main or auxiliary and give a reason for each answer:

   a) They *have* gone.
   b) They *have* no teeth.
   c) They must *have* done it.
   d) The rat *is* sick.
   e) The rat *is* sleeping
   f) Piggy *did* *do* that.

4. Explain the differences in meaning between the following pairs of sentences:

   a) Miriam lived in Grahamstown for 30 years.
      Miriam has lived in Grahamstown for 30 years.

   b) Miriam went.
      Miriam has gone.

   c) Miriam sings.
      Miriam is singing.

   d) Miriam works.
      Miriam must work.

   e) Miriam eats.
      Miriam will eat.

5. a) Choose the correct word from the pair given in brackets in each of the following:

   i) Stephen (practiced/practised) his violin piece.
   ii) The frail old woman has (averted/averred) the danger.
   iii) I eventually managed to (elicit/illicit) the truth.
   iv) Milton will (device/devise) a new plan.
   v) I (loathe/loath) Agatha.

b) In each of the following, the main verb refers to an action Ethel did with her legs and feet. Explain what she did in each case. Also see if you can suggest in what circumstances you think she would do each.

i) Ethel stumbled along.
ii) Ethel pranced about.
iii) Ethel pirouetted yesterday.
iv) Ethel tottered.
v) Ethel has floundered.

6. In which of the following are we told <u>what</u> Rosey was chewing ? –

a) Rosey chews.
b) Rosey chews greedily.
c) Rosey chews chewing-gum.

CHAPTER EIGHT

THE PREDICATE (2)

8.1 In question 6 of Chapter Seven you were asked to say which of the following predicates tells us what Rosey chews:

(1) Rosey chews.

(2) Rosey chews greedily.

(3) Rosey chews chewing-gum.

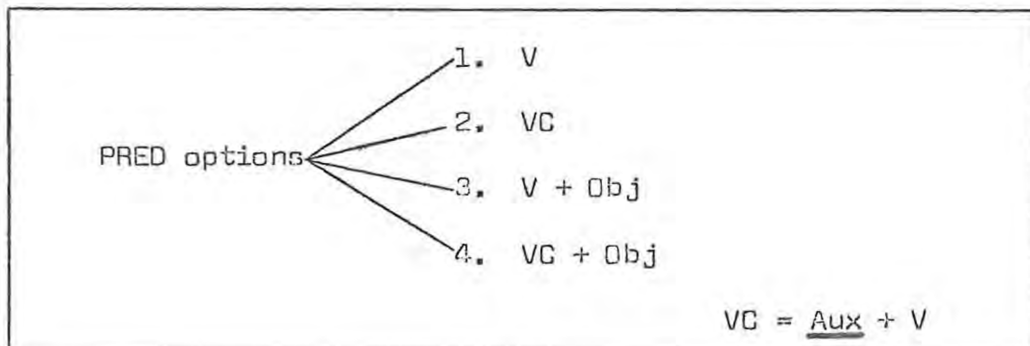
Obviously the first predicate does not tell us, as it consists only of a main verb with nothing after it; sentence (2) does have a word after the verb, but we cannot say that 'greedily' is what she chewed; sentence (3), however, tells us that what she chews is chewing-gum.

We can see, then, that there are two types of main verbs present here:

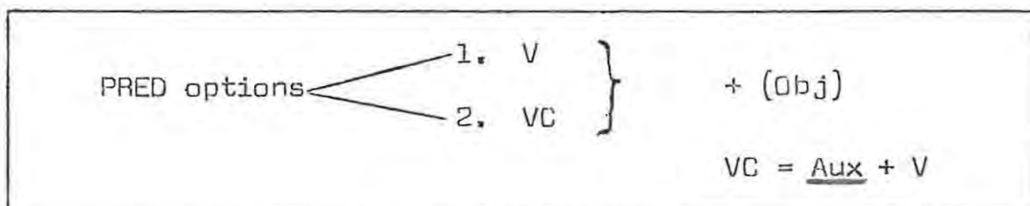
(a) Those that suggest that the action of the verb carries over to someone or something. We call the word or words which suffer the action an object (here 'chewing-gum'). (Usually main verbs which are followed by an object are called transitive verbs, since 'transitive' means 'carrying over'.)

(b) Those that do not have a structure after them to which the action of the verb is carried over. (We call these intransitive main verbs, since 'in' means 'not'; thus intransitive verbs do not have an object after them.)

8.2 We must now enlarge our options for the predicate to include the object:



This can be summarised more concisely as follows:



Bearing in mind that the brackets always mean that the item enclosed may or may not be present, we can explain the options for the predicate as indicated here as follows: one must choose either a main verb on its own or a main verb with one or more auxiliaries (i.e. a verb cluster); and one may also choose to have an object after the verb or verb cluster.

8.3 The way to decide whether there is an object in the predicate or not is first of all to bracket off the various structures in the predicate in terms of meaning.

(4) The old man / (has torn) (his trousers) (again).

The first structure in the predicate is always a verb or verb cluster. If there is an object, it will be the structure immediately after the verb/verb cluster. So, to see if the structure which immediately follows the verb/verb cluster is an object or not, try to substitute the word 'something' or 'someone'. If it makes sense to do so, then this structure is an object; if it does not, it is something else.

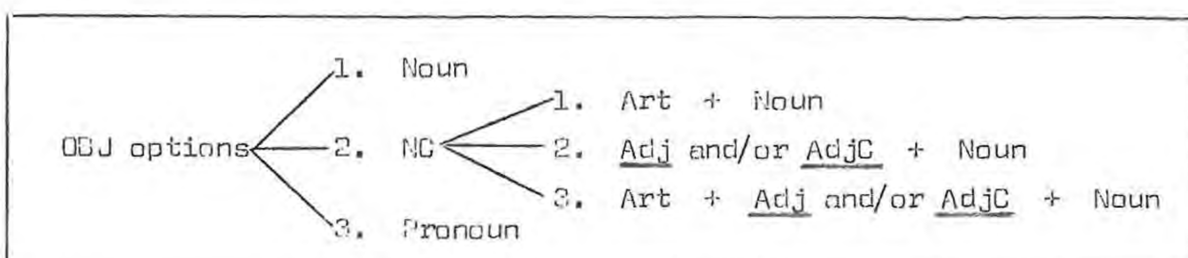
(4) The old man / (has torn) (something) (again).

Thus 'his trousers' is an object. Contrast this with the following:

(5) The donkey / (ate) (all night).
NOT: The donkey / (ate) (something).

NOW DO EXERCISES 1, 2 & 3 AT THE END OF THIS CHAPTER.

8.4 In question 3 you were asked to summarise the options for the object. You will probably have noticed that these are exactly the same as for the subject.



The way to analyse the object then, will be exactly the same as for the subject:

SEE PAGE 31: ANALYSIS OF SUBJECT

8.5 A verb describes the action or existence of someone or something. A person or thing acts or exists in a certain place, a certain manner, a certain time, for a certain reason, etc. We may wish to indicate this sort of information about the verb. One way to do this is to add a word to the verb conveying this information; we say this word qualifies the verb and call such words adverbs.

(6) Rodney cried yesterday. (Tells when he cried.)

(7) Uncle Joe ate the peanuts greedily. (Tells how he ate them.)

As with adjectives, one can add one or more modifiers to the adverb to tell us more about the adverb (i.e. to modify the adverb). Together the modifier and the adverb form an adverbial cluster. Thus sentence (7) could be modified to read :

(8) Uncle Joe ate the peanuts rather greedily.

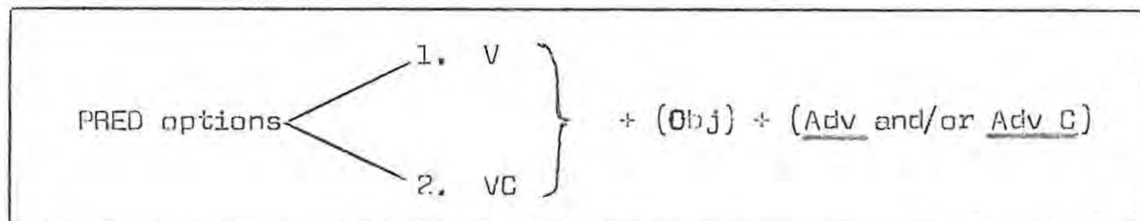
Note the following points about adverbs and adverbial clusters:

(a) It is possible, as with adjectives, to have more than one adverb or adverbial cluster in a sentence, each conveying a separate piece of information.

E.g. Engelbert sat here very quietly. ('here' = where; 'very quietly = how.)

(b) A sentence does not have to contain adverbs or adverbial clusters.

8.6 The options for the predicate can now finally be summarised as follows:



8.7 We must now begin to include the predicate in our branching-tree diagram. Having found the subject and the predicate and having analysed the subject, one must proceed as follows to analyse the predicate:

1. Bracket off the various structures in the predicate in terms of meaning.

   E.g. The old man / (must have torn) (his new trousers) (rather badly) (yesterday).

2. The first structure in the predicate will either be a main verb on its own or a verb cluster. If it is a verb cluster, analyse as follows:
   a) Find the main verb - the last verb always.
   b) The others will then be auxiliaries.

   E.g. 'must have torn': 'torn' = main verb; 'must' and 'have' = auxiliaries.

3. Test to see if what follows the verb/verb cluster is an object - remember that there are other items that can occur in the predicate. You can test for this by trying to substitute 'something' or 'someone' in place of the structure immediately following the verb/ verb cluster. If it makes sense to do so, then this structure is an object; if not, it is something else.

   E.g. The old man must have torn 'something';
   i.e. 'his new trousers' = object.

4. Whatever is left over will be either an adverb on its own and/or an adverb with a modifier forming an adverbial cluster.

5. Draw the tree:

S
Subj Pred
NC VC Obj AdvC Adv
Art Adj Noun Aux Aux V Adj Adj Noun Mod Adv

The old man must have torn his new trousers rather badly yesterday

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER EIGHT

1. Which of the following sentences contain an object?

   a) She slaps hard.
   b) Gertie has been eating koeksusters all day.
   c) The lunatic ranted all day.
   d) Albert has gone.
   e) The old man spoke very politely.
   f) She has only two teeth.
   g) Cecilia hates Jacarandas.
   h) Rosey chewed daintily.

2. Use the following main verbs each in 2 sentences, once with an object, and once without an object. Underline the object each time.

   a) SHOOT
   b) EAT
   c) RUB

3. Write down the objects from the following sentences. Then see if you can make a summary of all the options for the object:

   a) Monty counted his money.
   b) I want a new car.
   c) Sofie saw Stoffels.
   d) Emily does not like very rare steaks.
   e) Eddie has solved the rather sticky problem.
   f) Eddie has solved it.

4. What are the 16 options for the predicate ? Give an example of each.

5. What are the options for the object ? Give an example of each.

6. Draw a tree diagram for each of the following sentences:

   a) Ophelia died here yesterday.
   b) Stoffels crashed his Honda rather badly.
   c) You must contact her immediately.
   d) Emily could have been writing her final examinations now.
   e) Stephen passes very easily.
   f) This old man has been snoring very loudly tonight.

7. The objects in the following all refer to virtues that can easily turn into vices if overdone or done for the wrong motives. In terms of this, why do we like:

   a) an energetic person BUT NOT a self-seeking person ?
   b) a steadfast person BUT NOT a stubborn person ?
   c) a tactful person BUT NOT a timid person ?
   d) a serious person BUT NOT a sullen person ?

e) a <u>gentle</u> person BUT NOT a <u>hypersensitive</u> person ?
f) a <u>conscientious</u> person BUT NOT a <u>perfectionist</u> person ?
g) a <u>discerning</u> person BUT NOT a <u>critical</u> person ?

CHAPTER NINE

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

9.1 A kernel sentence is a structure which tells us about the action or existence of someone or something. In other words, we are given two main pieces of information:

(a) about someone or something (the 'actor')
(b) about the action or existence of this actor.

Thus our basic rule for the kernel sentence is:

S consists of Subj + Pred

The subject tells us about the actor; the predicate tells us about the action or existence of this someone or something. (See Chapter Four.)

Therefore, when speaking or writing a kernel sentence, we must put together a subject and a predicate. In forming the subject, one chooses either a noun or noun cluster or pronoun. If one chooses a noun cluster, there are different options open to one. (See Chapters Five and Six.) The noun or pronoun, which is the key-word in the subject (i.e. it functions as the subject-word), tells us most about who or what is being referred to. The article and adjective tell us more about that to which the noun refers (i.e. they 'qualify' the noun); while the modifier adds further information about the degree to which the actor possesses the quality expressed by the adjective (i.e. it 'modifies' the adjective). A pronoun is used if one wishes, for various reasons, to replace a noun or noun cluster.

To the subject is then added the predicate. Here there are also various options: one must include either a verb or a verb cluster to describe the action or existence of the subject; one may also choose to add an object after the verb to indicate who or what undergoes the action performed by the subject; or one may add an adverb (and/or an adverbial cluster) to the verb, to tell when, where, how, why, etc. the action occurs; or one may choose to add both an object and an adverb (and/or adverbial cluster) to the verb. If one has chosen an object, the options for its structure are the same as those for the subject. (See Chapters Seven and Eight.)

9.2 A further point which needs to be noted here is that there are other options for adjectival and adverbial clusters which have not yet been mentioned. So far, we simply have an adjective or an adverb preceded by a modifier.

Now read the following sentence:

(1) The lady in the purple dress is wearing earrings with green beads.

There are two noun clusters in this sentence:

(1) The lady in the purple dress (Subject)
earrings with green beads (Object)

In each case, we have a noun cluster consisting of a noun which is qualified by an adjectival cluster. The adjectival clusters are as follows:

(1) in the purple dress
with green beads

The structure of both of these adjectival clusters is the same: in each case there is a noun cluster preceded by a word like 'in' or 'with' — called prepositions. (Thus we have an interesting situation where the noun cluster contains an adjectival cluster which contains a noun cluster. This makes one realise just how complicated are some of the structures which we produce every day!)

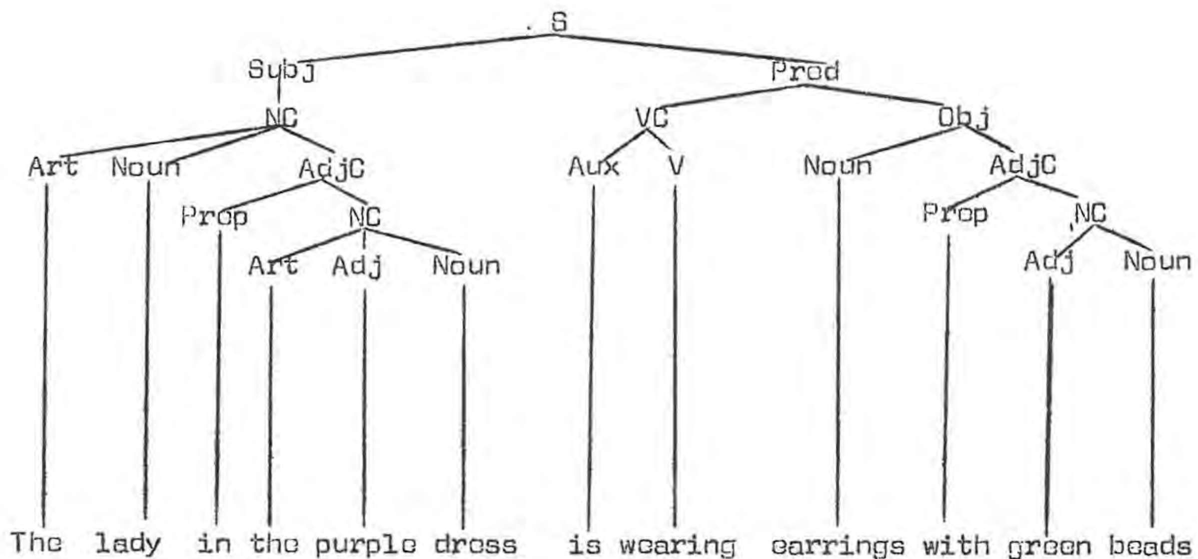
There are thus two kinds of adjectival clusters:

(a) Mod + Adj
(b) Prep + NC

It should be noted that the second kind of adjectival cluster occurs after the noun it qualifies, and not before, as with the other one.

The way to analyse this kind of adjectival cluster is to find the noun, and then work backwards as you have done with all other noun clusters. The only difference now is that there will be a preposition at the beginning.

This new kind of adjectival cluster can be shown in a diagram as follows:



Now let us examine the corresponding kind of adverbial cluster. Read the following sentences:

(2) That old man snores every night.

(3) The old man sat on the broken chair.

(4) That old man snores at night.

In each case, there is an adverbial cluster used to modify the verb:

(2) every night

(3) on the broken chair

(4) at night

The element common to all of these is - as was the case with the adjectival cluster discussed above - a noun or noun cluster. One difference is that, whereas an adjectival cluster which contains a noun cluster must also contain a preposition before the noun cluster, an adverbial cluster only sometimes has a preposition preceding the noun cluster. In our examples above, (3) has a preposition before the noun cluster, while (2) does not. If, however, there is no noun cluster but only a noun (as in (4) above), then there must be a preposition.

There are thus three kinds of adverbial clusters:

(a) Mod + Adv

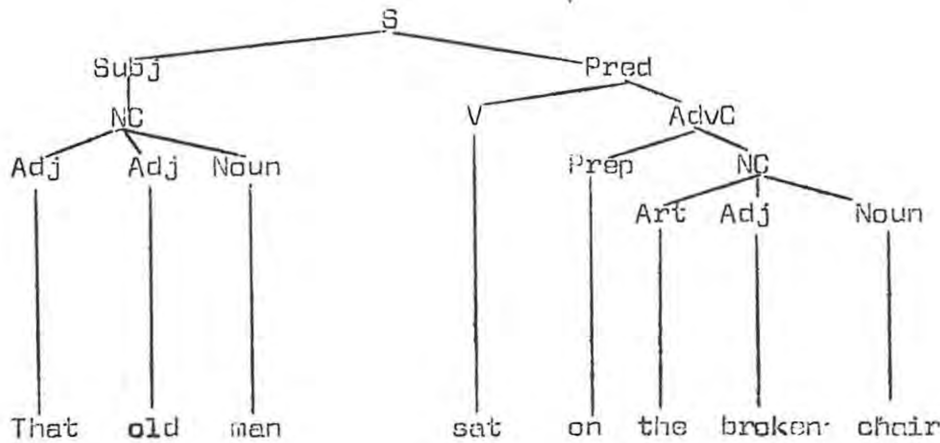
(b) Prep + Noun

(c) (Prep) + NC

The way to analyse an adverbial cluster is to find the key word (the last one) and then to decide whether this is a noun or an adverb, and

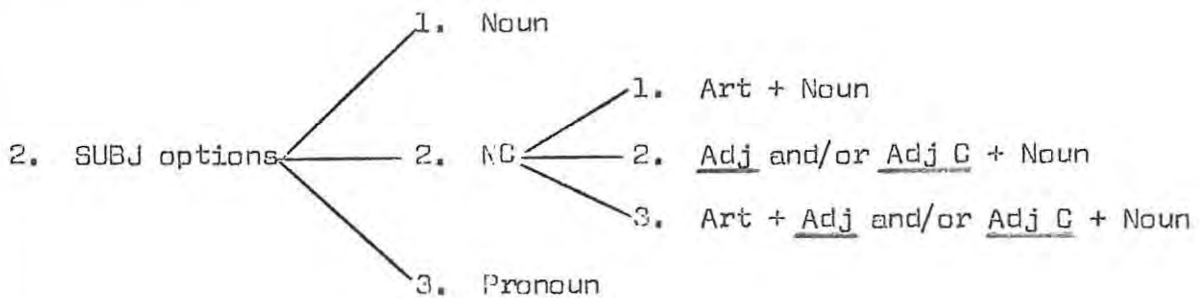
then to proceed from there to work out the parts of speech of the remaining words accordingly.

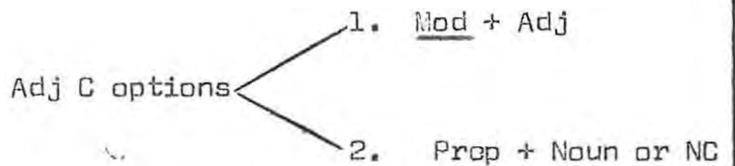
This new kind of adverbial cluster can also be shown in a diagram:

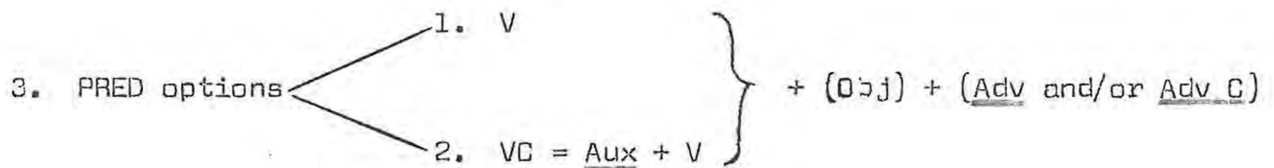


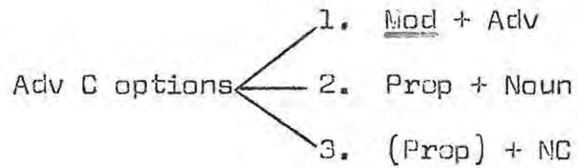
9.3 The various rules and options for the kernel sentence can now be summarised as follows:

1. S consists of Subj + Pred







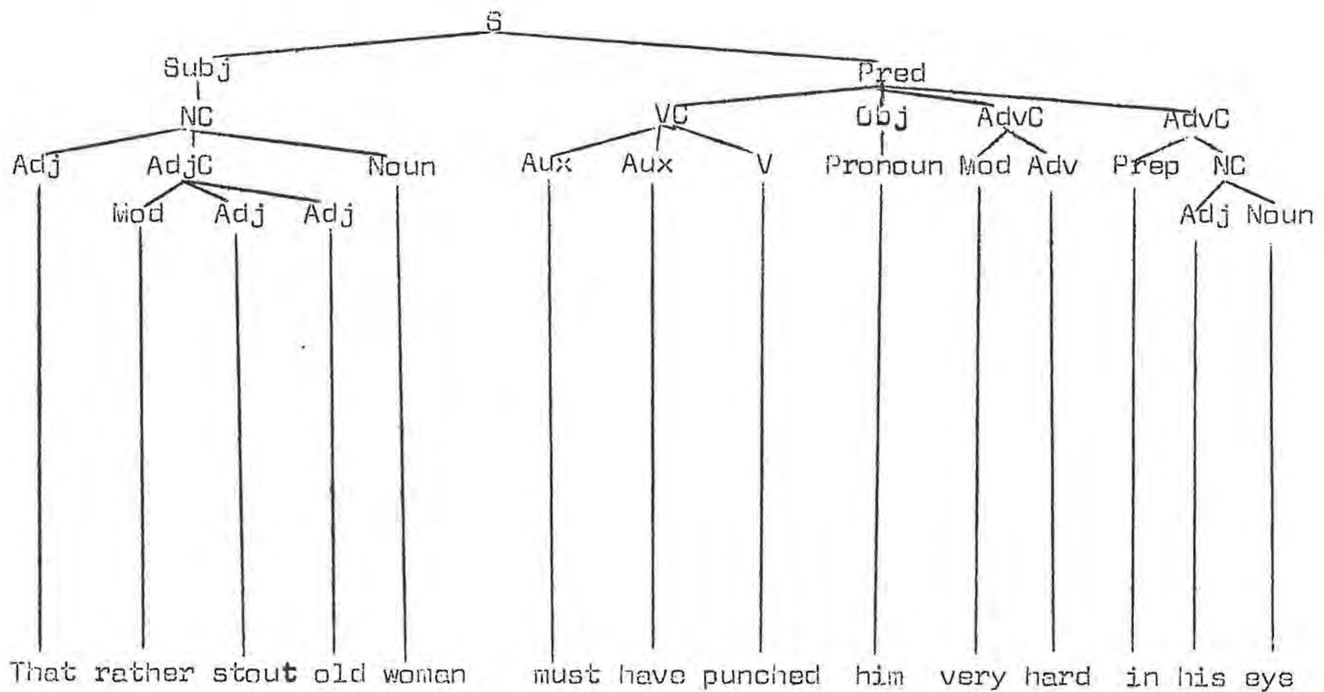


OBJ options —— Same as SUBJ

9.4 Let us take a kernel sentence as an example and then see how the various rules have been used to synthesise (produce) this sentence. Imagine that Stoffels has just been to see his unfortunate uncle, who was knocked unconscious yesterday by a rather large lady with a very hot temper. He goes to Emily and says:

That rather stout woman must have punched him very hard in his eye!

The diagram for this sentence is as follows:



Stoffels obviously wanted to tell about the action performed by someone. So he must have had Rule 1 in mind:

S consists of Subj + Pred

In order to produce the subject, he had to choose one of the options from Rule 2. He chose an NC. He then selected one of the options for the NC: Adj + Adj C + Noun. Still in terms of Rule 2, he then chose as his Adj C : Mod + Adj. It is clear how this conveys his meaning: The noun functioning as subject-word tells us who it was that performed the action - a 'woman'; the article 'the' refers to a certain woman; the adjective, together with its modifier, tells us what the woman looked like.

Then, in adding the predicate to the subject, he had to use Rule 3. First of all he selected his verbal structure: a VC consisting of a main verb 'punched', with two auxiliaries ('must' and 'have')to tell us more about the main verb. The main verb, furthermore, is a transitive one, since he wanted to tell who it was that suffered the action of punching performed by the woman. He chose as his object a pronoun, 'him', which replaces the words 'my uncle'. Furthermore he tells us how and where she must have punched the poor fellow by adding in two Adverbial Clusters, one consisting of Mod + Adv ('very hard') and the other of Prep + NC. For the latter NC he decided upon Adj + Noun ('his eye').

These, it must be borne in mind, are only some of the facts of ~~his~~ the grammar that Stoffels is using; he had to use a host of other facts. This simply goes to show that, to produce an apparently easy sentence, an extremely complicated set of facts is required.

9.5 If one wanted to draw the tree for this sentence, the following are the main steps to be followed (they are a combination of those given in earlier chapters).

1. Divide the sentence into SUBJECT and PREDICATE.
   (See Chapter 4.)
   E.g. That rather stout woman / must have punched him very hard in his eye.

2. Analyse the SUBJECT:
   (a) See if the subject can be sub-divided into sections.
   E.g. (That) (rather stout) (woman) / ....
   (b) If there is only one word, then this will be a noun or pronoun. If there is more than one word, this will be a noun cluster. The key-word in the noun cluster will be a noun. The rest of the subject is sorted out by working backwards from the noun. If there is anything after this noun, it will be an adjectival cluster, either a preposition and a noun or a preposition and a noun cluster.
   (See Chapters 5, 6 and 10.)
   (c) Draw this part of the diagram.

3. Analyse the PREDICATE:
   (a) See if the predicate can be sub-divided into sections.
   E.g. ..... / (must have punched) (him) (very hard) (in his eye)
   (b) Analyse the verb or verb cluster. Draw in this part.
   (See Chapter 7.)
   (c) Test for an object. If there is one, then analyse it. Draw in this part.
   (See Chapter 8.)
   (d) Analyse the remainder - adverb or adverbial clusters. Draw in this part.
   (See Chapters 9 and 10.)

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER NINE

1. Make up a subject for each of the following sentences according to the structures printed in italics:

   Example: Noun did the deed.
   Thelma did the deed.

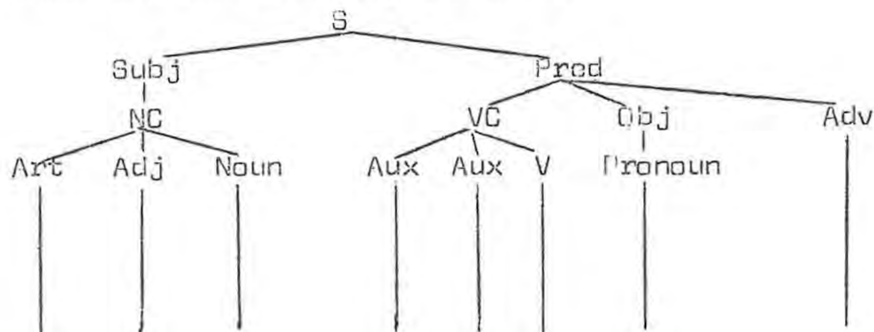
   a) Art + Noun arrived late.
   b) Pronoun tried his best.
   c) Adj + Mod + Adj + Noun ate all the peanuts.

2. Make up a predicate for each of the following sentences according to the structures printed in italics:

   Example: Rosey Vi
   Rosey danced.

   a) My sister Aux + Vt + Obj (= Adj + Noun).
   b) Miriam Vi + Mod + Adv.
   c) Egbert Aux + Vt + Obj (= Pronoun) + Adv.

3. Make up a sentence with the following structure:



4. Draw a detailed branching-tree diagram for each of the following sentences:

   a) This old man with the weak heart must take his tablets very regularly.
   b) She shrieked hysterically in the dingy park yesterday.
   c) This utterly cheap, common man has cheated me again.
   d) Your aunt must have mixed the orange cooldrink last night.
   e) I scolded the young girl with the pimply face very firmly the other day.

5. Make up a sentence with the same structure as sentence 4(a).

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CHAPTER TEN

THE NON-KERNEL SENTENCE

10.1 So far we have been dealing only with the structure of the kernel sentence. The following is a typical example of a kernel sentence:

(1) Billy ironed his trousers yesterday.

We have already said that the kernel sentence has a structure consisting of two pieces (a Subject and a Predicate) which occur in the order of Subject first and then Predicate. Furthermore, within each of these, the various items occur in the specific order laid down in the rules given in the last chapter. We may now note two further points about the kernel sentence - i.e. it contains only one subject and one predicate; and secondly, it always makes a statement - i.e. it gives information rather than asks for it ; nor does it give commands. We can sum up the main characteristics of the kernel sentence (which we abbreviate to KS) as follows:

1. Meaning: statement
2. Structure: (a) Simple sentence: 1 subject and 1 predicate.
   (b) Order of items: first subject and then predicate(and a specific order of items within these according to the rules).

The rules have been discussed up to Chapter 9. These will be called the 'Kernel Rules' from now onwards.

10.2 Now take the following sentence:

(2) Yesterday Billy ironed his **trousers.**

At first sight, this may appear to be a kernel sentence: it is a statement sentence; it contains only one subject ('Billy') and one predicate ('ironed his trousers yesterday'). However, on one score it does not fit in with the typical characteristics of a kernel sentence: the subject does not come first and then the predicate. In fact, we have a piece of predicate on either side of the subject. This, then, is a statement simple sentence, but it is not a kernel sentence; we call it a Non-kernel (NK) sentence.

Try yourself on the following; which of them are kernel sentences ?

(3) Cuthbert plays the violin.

(4) Such people annoy me.

(5) Such people I cannot stand.

(6) Tomorrow Freddie will diet.

10.3 We said that sentence (2) was not a kernel sentence. However, we can see that it is very closely related to the kernel form of the same sentence given above:

(1) Billy ironed his trousers yesterday.

It is clear from this that the non-kernel form is simply formed from the kernel form; the adverb is moved out of the predicate and placed in front of the subject, thus splitting the predicate into two. This process of changing a kernel sentence into a non-kernel sentence is called transformation: one form is changed into another. We can see from this that our linguistic knowledge about sentence structure concerns two main points:

(A) the formation of kernel sentences;

(B) The transformation of kernel into non-kernel sentences.

Up to now we have been dealing with the first point - the structure of the kernel. Now we shall look at how we derive the non-kernel sentence from the kernel form. We may see the kernel structure as the seed from which all other sentences grow: words and phrases are added in, taken out, or moved about. The kernel is therefore the basic structure which underlines all sentences; the non-kernel sentence is the structure that is derived from the kernel.

10.4 We have already referred to one type of non-kernel sentence: the statement sentence in which the various structures do not occur in the normal kernel sentence order. In sentence (2) above the adverb yesterday has been placed at the beginning of the sentence. A further type of non-kernel statement sentence is that in which the object is placed before the subject. For example:

(7) That woman I admire very much.

Here the subject is I and the predicate admire that woman very much. However, we do not always want to make a statement. Sometimes we want to ask a question:

(8) Will Sonia eat the koeksister ?

or express a command:

(9) Eat the koeksister !

or exclaim something:

(10) Oh! What a sticky koeksister!

If we were to examine each of these carefully, we should find that what we are doing in forming each one is to take the kernel structure and to transform it into one of the other types of simple sentences. Non-kernel sentences are therefore constructed by taking the ingredients of a kernel structure, and mixing them differently. In the next few chapters we shall be looking at how kernels are transformed into questions, commands and exclamations.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER TEN

1. Explain carefully what is meant by each of the following terms:

   a) kernel sentence;
   b) non-kernel sentence;
   c) transformation.

2. Which of the following are NOT kernel sentences ? Give at least one reason for each answer:

   a) Poor Milly died last night.
   b) Unfortunately poor Milly was very ill.
   c) Mrs Van Staden likes pumpkin fritters very much.
   d) Every day the old lady knits more socks for her ailing husband.
   e) What an idiot you are!
   f) This rotten old car will fall to pieces any day now.
   g) Who did that ?
   h) At night the stars shine brightly.
   i) Which little kitty scratched the delicate child ?

3. State what type of simple sentence each of the following is (i.e. statement, question, etc.):

   a) Eat your pudding!
   b) What have you done ?
   c) This stupid book bores me.
   d) Who squashed the poor snail so cruelly ?
   e) What a fool!
   f) Fortunately it did not rain today.
   g) I hate hard-boiled eggs.

4. Comment on why you think each of the following writers made use of non-kernel statements:

   a) That man I cannot stand.
   b) I swam yesterday. Today I merely sunbathed.

CHAPTER ELEVEN

QUESTION SENTENCES

11.1 Read the following sentence:

(1) That silly child will eat this lollipop tomorrow.

This is a kernel sentence. We said in Chapter Ten that kernel sentences are statement sentences - i.e. sentences that aim to give information. They are used in situations where one person knows something that someone else does not, and wants to tell the other person. Thus we might imagine Stoffels turning to Emily and making the above statement.

We also saw in Chapter Ten that the structure of statement sentences is usually related to the aim: any statement tells us about someone or something (here 'that silly child') that performs a certain action (here that of 'eating'), possibly upon someone or something else (here 'the lollipop') at a certain time, place, etc. (here 'tomorrow'). Thus we have a subject (telling us who or what performs the action), a verb (telling us what the action was), sometimes an object (telling us who or what suffered the action), and adverbs (telling us when, where, etc. the action occurs); and, since the last two aspects of information are all linked to the verb, they, together with the verb, form one large structure called the predicate.

11.2 If the situation were the opposite from the above - i.e. it is Stoffels that does not know something while Emily does and Stoffels wants to be given this information, then he will ask a question instead of making a statement. He could, for example, ask any one of the following questions:

(2) Will that silly child eat this lollipop tomorrow ?

(3) Who will eat this lollipop tomorrow ?

(4) What will that silly child eat tomorrow ?

(5) When will that silly child eat this lollipop ?

If you examine these questions carefully, you will see that each one is seeking a different piece of information; it all depends on which aspect of sentence (1) is not known to Stoffels. Let us take them in turn.

11.3 Sentence (2) is used where the speaker lacks information about the verb - here he does not know whether the action will take place or not. Stoffels, for exampl-, might have heard a r'mour that the child intends to eat the lollipop, but he is not sure. Thus he might ask Emily the question:

(2) Will that silly child eat this lollipop tomorrow ?

11.4 Sentences (3), (4) and (5) are used where the speaker knows that the action will take place, but does not know everything. The particular question he asks will depend on what aspect of information he lacks:

11.4.1 He might not know who will eat the lollipop. All he knows is that someone intends to eat the lollipop the next day. The information he requires is the subject of the sentence. Thus Stoffels might turn to Emily and ask:

(3) Who will eat the lollipop tomorrow ?

11.4.2 On the other hand, the subject may be known to the speaker, but there might be aspects of the predicate that are lacking. Firstly he might not know what the silly child intends to eat the next day. He will thus ask a question seeking the object of the verb as his answer:

(4) What will that silly child eat tomorrow ?

Secondly, what he might want to know is when the action is to take place. Thus Stoffels would put the following question to Emily:

(5) When will that silly child eat this lollipop ?

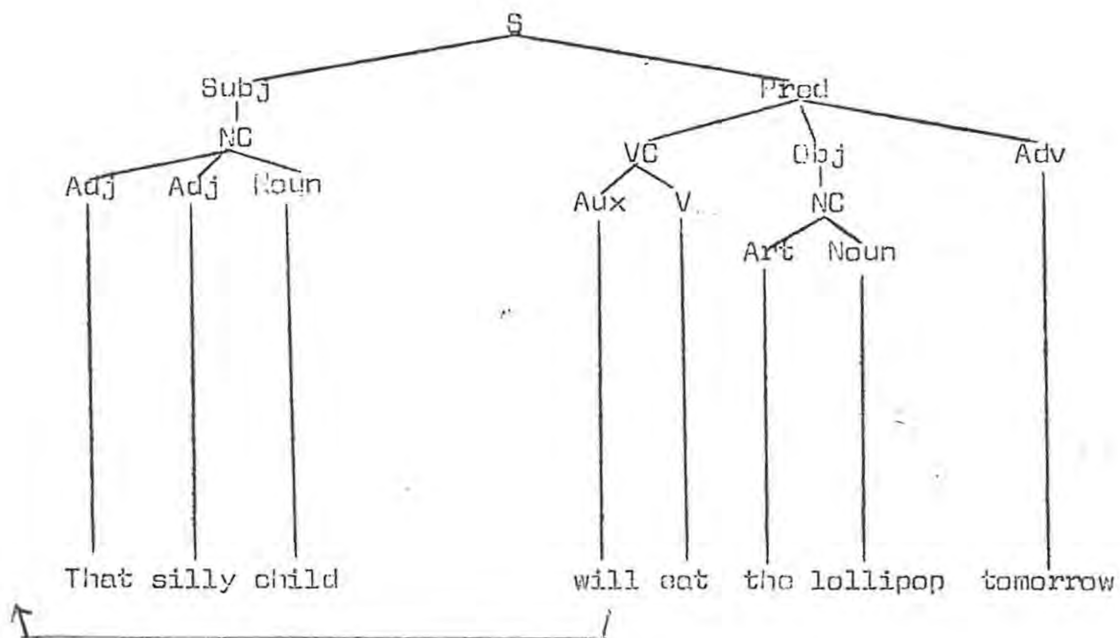
11.5 If you compare the structure of all these questions with that of sentence(1), you will see that each is simply a variation on the kernel structure. In each case, the kernel has been transformed in a different way according to what information is being sought. There are two basic types of information which can be sought; and there are thus two basic types of questions:

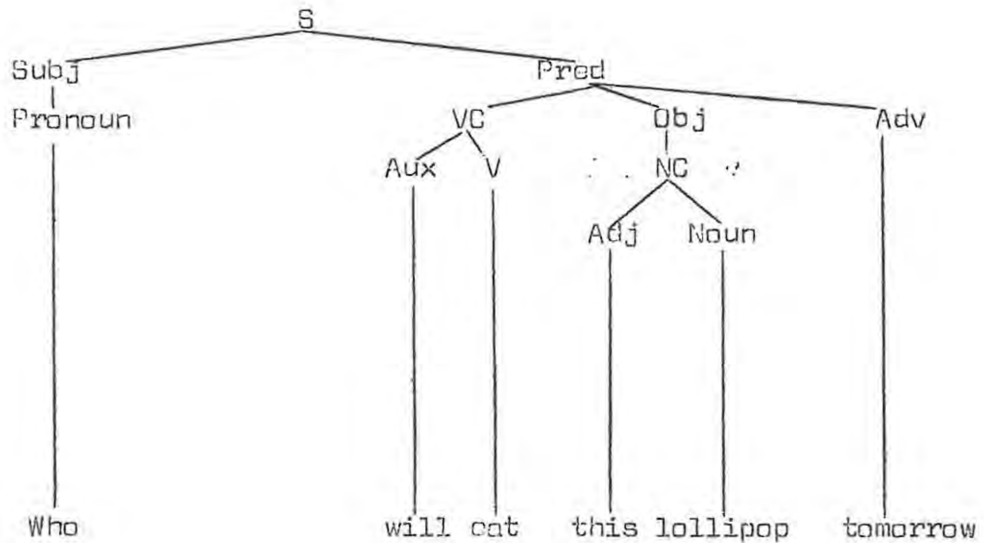
11.5.1 Sentence (2) stands alone amongst these questions. It is the only one in which the answer sought is simply 'Yes' or 'No'. In posing the question, Stoffels is seeking simply an affirmative or a negative answer - will the child do this or not ? These questions are therefore called

Yes/No Questions. If you compare the structures of sentences (1) and (2), you will see that the Yes/No Question is formed by simply moving the auxiliary out of the predicate and placing it in front of the subject.

11.5.2 In all the other questions, the speaker knows that the action will take place, but wishes to obtain a certain piece of information about this action. These questions are also formed as a result of transforming the kernel; here the auxiliary is also moved to the front; but, in addition, a word, usually beginning with the letters wh-, is added to the beginning of the sentence. Since most of these words begin with wh-, these questions are all called Wh-Questions.

11.6 In order to draw a tree diagram for a question sentence, we transform the question back to the order of items in the kernel structure by simply following our normal procedure for dividing sentences into subject and predicate. The diagram is then drawn in terms of the same procedure as for kernel sentences, except that an arrow is included to indicate moved items. Let us take sentences (2) and (3) as examples:





11.6 Summary of this chapter:

SITUATION: Question sentences are used in situations where speaker A lacks certain information which is known to speaker B.

AIM: They are uttered by speaker A in order to obtain this information from speaker B.

TYPES:

1) Yes/No Questions: speaker A wants to know whether a certain action has taken or will take place. He transforms the kernel by moving the auxiliary to the front of the sentence.

2) Wh-Questions: speaker A wants to know who does the action, or who suffers the action, or where, when, how or why the action takes place. He transforms the kernel by moving the auxiliary and also by adding in the appropriate wh-word.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER ELEVEN

1. State whether each of the following sentences is a Yes/No or a Wh—Question:

   a) Why did you sit on the doughnut ?
   b) Who did that ?
   c) May we eat now ?
   d) What did you say ?

2. Transform each of the following sentences into Yes/No Questions:

   a) Wonky-Poo could have had seven kittens.
   b) Sheila has finished her homework already.

3. Answer 'Yes' or 'No' to each of the following Yes/No Questions:

   a) Does a verbose person talk much ?
   b) Is an invaluable gift worth nothing ?
   c) Does a rash person consider the possible consequences of his action ?
   d) Is an honorary secretary unpaid ?
   e) Are contiguous rooms adjacent ?
   f) Does a morose person smile much ?
   g) Is an archipelago a group of islands ?

4. Draw a tree diagram for each of the following sentences:

   a) Why must I shut my mouth ?
   b) Has the tick died yet ?
   c) Which idiot has eaten the sosatie ?
   d) Which sosatie has Mary eaten ?
   e) How did the dog swallow that big bone ?
   f) Has Peanuts been studying very hard ?
   g) Who has seen him ?
   h) Whom has he seen ?

CHAPTER TWELVE

COMMANDS AND EXCLAMATIONS

12.1 Commands:

Read the following:

(1) Eat the frog!

The verb in this sentence is 'eat', while 'the frog' forms the direct object. Thus 'eat the frog' forms the predicate. This means, then, that the sentence appears to have no subject. This is the main characteristic of the command: there is apparently no subject.

However, the sentence must have a subject in order for us to know who or what will perform the action of the verb - in this case the action of eating. Since commands are always given directly to someone listening or reading, and not about someone, it is obvious that the subject must be 'you': this is the pronoun used in addressing people directly. See Thus the sentence is actually:

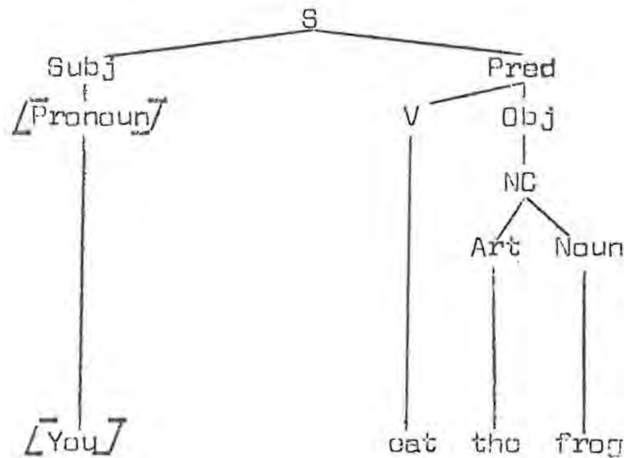
(1) [You] eat the frog!

The command sentence, then, differs from the kernel as follows:

KERNEL	COMMAND
1. Must have a subject present.	Subject never actually present - merely understood.
2. Has numerous choices for subject (see rule for subject).	Has only one choice ('you').

Thus, when one transforms the kernel structure into the command sentence, one chooses as one's subject the pronoun 'you', but one doesn't actually say it.

Commands are shown in tree diagrams as follows:



12.2 Exclamations:

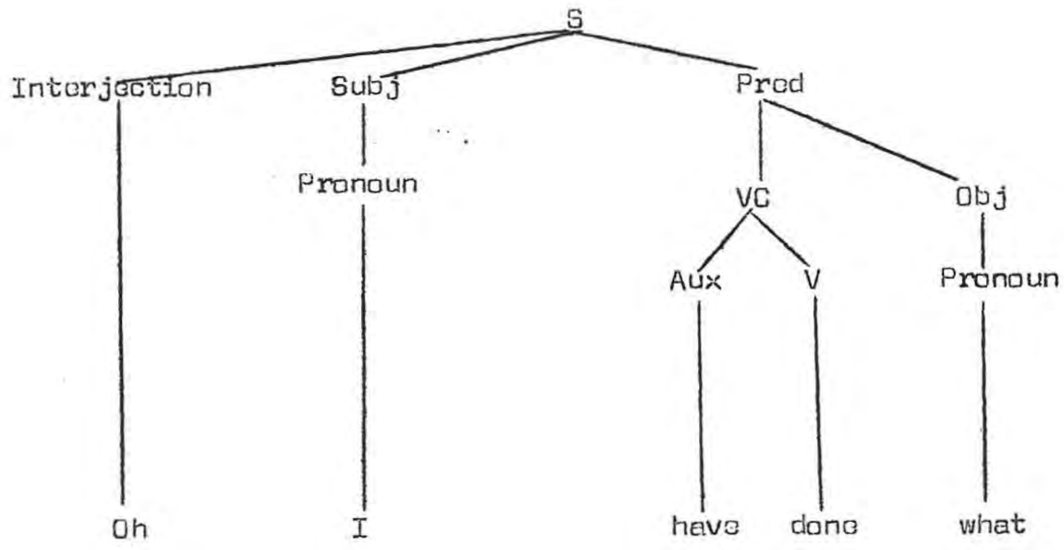
Exclamations take many different forms. One of the typical characteristics is that they often include what are called 'interjections' - little words like 'oh', 'ouch', etc. that express one's emotions. Some examples of exclamation sentences are:

(2) Oh, what an idiot you are!
(3) Hurrah! We won!
(4) Ouch! That hurt!

Interjections can of course also be used with other types of simple sentences (e.g. questions) but they are used mainly with exclamations.

Interjections have no relation to any other words in the sentence - they are the only part of speech that does not. Hence the name - inter means 'among', while jection comes from the Latin word for 'throw'. They are thus words that are not actuallyyincluded as part of a sentence, but are merely 'thrown among' the words of a sentence. We do not, therefore, include it in either the subject or the predicate, but as a separate section belonging nowhere. Take, for example, the sentence:

(5) Oh, what have I done!


S
Interjection
Subj
Pred
Pronoun
VC
Obj
Aux
V
Pronoun
Oh
I
have
done
what

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER TWELVE

1. a) How can we deduce that the understood subject of a command sentence must be the pronoun *you* ?

   b) Why is it understood, and not explicitly stated ?

2. a) Draw a tree diagram for each of the following sentences:

   i) Drink your milk!
   ii) Make your bed properly!
   iii) Squeeze the toothpaste hard!
   iv) Mix the two ingredients well!
   v) Stop that!
   vi) Oh! What must I do now!

   b) Draw a tree diagram for each of the following commands, and then try obeying each in mime:

   i) Gesticulate clearly!
   ii) Masticate your food properly.
   iii) Argue your case vehemently!
   iv) Ooze charm profusely!
   v) Upbraid that naughty child vociferously!

3. The following are all abbreviations for command sentences:

   P.T.O.
   S.O.S.
   R.S.V.P.

   a) Write out P.T.O. and S.O.S. in full, and try to give the morse code for S.O.S.

   b) Write out R.S.V.P. in full, and then give the English version of it. Where is it usually seen ?

4. Read the cartoon on page 65 by Charles Schultz, and then write down an example of each of the following simple sentences from the cartoon:

   a) command;
   b) statement;
   c) wh-question.

WHOEVER HEARD OF A DOG DOING IMITATIONS?

IT'S SILLY, THAT'S WHAT IT IS! DON'T KNOW WHY I BOTHER TALKING ABOUT IT...
!

OH, STOP IT!

STOP IT? STOP WHAT, CHARLIE BROWN?
NEVER MIND! WHAT YOU DON'T KNOW WON'T HURT YOU!

CHAPTER THIRTEEN

SIMPLE vs NON-SIMPLE SENTENCES

13.1 Definition

All the sentences with which we have been dealing so far have been simple sentences, both kernel and non-kernel. However, from an early age, a child learns to combine two or more simple sentences to form non-simple sentences.

For example, look at the following set of sentences:

Rupert arrived. He sat down. He took off his boots.

These could be combined to form one non-simple sentence:

Rupert arrived, sat down and took off his boots.

The obvious difference between a simple and a non-simple sentence as regards structure is that, whereas a simple sentence contains only one subject and one predicate, a non-simple sentence contains two or more subjects and predicates, depending on the number of simple sentences that have been combined to form it. The easiest way to check whether a sentence is simple or non-simple is to count the number of verbs or verb clusters: one verb or verb cluster = simple sentence; two or more verbs or verb clusters = non-simple sentence.

13.2 Reasons for Combining

Why do people combine simple sentences ? In actual fact, doing so makes things more difficult for us - it would be far easier to speak only in simple sentences. Perhaps you can try finding reasons for combining by comparing the following sets of sentences:

(1) Ethelred arrived home. He kissed his wife. He doted on her.
(2) When Ethelred arrived home, he kissed his wife because he doted on her.

You will probably notice that there are at least two reasons why set (2) is better than set (1):

(a) The first piece is monotonous. This would be even more evident if there had been more simple sentences. No.2 flows more easily and is more pleasing to the eye and ear.

Thus one reason for combining simple sentences is to avoid monotony.

(b) Furthermore, No.1 does not make it conclusive that the reason for his kissing her was that he doted on her; or that this lip-action occurred at the time of his arrival (and not later). In other words, if the sentences are not joined, the relationship of one sentence to the other is sometimes not altogether clear. In the above example, the relationship of the first sentence to the second is one of time, while the relationship between the third and second is one of reason. Therefore, the second reason for combining simple sentences is to establish the relationships between sentences as clearly as possible.

13.3 Reasons for NOT Combining

There are times, however, when a writer deliberately chooses not to combine simple sentences. Compare the following two sets of sentences, and see if you can suggest in each case why someone might prefer to produce the uncombined rather than the combined version.

(3a) The monstrous waves rose above us. They dashed against the starboard side. We stood stupefied.

b) As the monstrous waves rose above us and dashed against the starboard side, we stood stupefied.

(4a) Everyone left hastily. Mrs Du Toit had arrived.

b) Everyone left hastily because Mrs Du Toit had arrived.

There are perhaps two reasons here for not combining:

(a) We said that set (1) above was monotonous because of the string of simple sentences, and that a combined version would therefore be preferable. With set (3a), on the other hand, we find that the uncombined version is not monotonous; in fact, it gains by being composed of a number of simple sentences, because of the increase in dramatic power or suspense. The use of short, sharp sentences, which forces us to pause continually, contributes to an atmosphere of tension and drama. Thus, whereas one set of simple sentences may be monotonous, another may be dramatically effective.

(b) If we compare (4a) and (4b), we will see that (4) is clearer than (4a) - the relationship between the two sentences is more definitely stated: the reason for the hasty departure of everyone was the arrival of Mrs Du Toit. We gave this clearer establishment of relationships as one of the reasons for combining simple sentences. However, if someone wished merely to imply a relationship rather than to state it overtly for some reason or other (e.g. to avoid being sued, to be amusing, etc.), he may deliberately leave them as separate sentences. This is one way in which we can achieve the technique known as innuendo - the subtle technique of suggestion often employed by propagandists.

13.4 Summary of Reasons

FOR	AGAINST
a) to avoid monotony	for effect (e.g. suspense)
b) to establish relationships of meaning clearly between sentences	to imply relationships

13.5 Method of Combining

The most common way of combining simple sentences is to use conjunctions as a sort of glue between them. Examples of conjunctions are: and, but, that, because, when, etc.

Once a simple sentence has been combined with another simple sentence in this particular way, then each sentence which was combined is now called a clause. In other words, they are combined to form one big non-simple sentence, which then contains two or more clauses. We might, therefore, define a clause as a 'has been' sentence. Take, for example, the following two simple sentences:

(5) The cow died. The cow ate frozen grass.

These can be combined to form the following non-simple sentence:

(6) The cow died because it ate the frozen grass.

This non-simple sentence contains the following two clauses:

The cow died;
because it ate the frozen grass.

Note that, often when one combines sentences in this way, certain repeated items are not actually written or spoken, but merely understood. This omission of words necessary to complete the grammatical structure of a sentence is called ellipsis. It is this avoidance of repetition that helps to prevent monotony.

Here are some examples:

(1) Albert danced. + Albert became weary. =
Albert danced and /‾Albert_7 became weary.

(2) You want to go. + You want me to buy your tickets. +
You must give me the money now. =
If you want me to go and /‾if you want me to me to_7 buy your tickets, you must give me the money now.

13.6 Some DON'TS in Combining Sentences

When one is combining simple sentences in this way, there are a few DON'TS that one must bear in mind:

(a) DON'T combine too many sentences.
E.g. When Marie arrived and found that her mother had taken ant-poison because her father had left them, she immediately telephoned the doctor, who arrived too late to prevent death, even though he tried his utmost.

(b) DON'T combine unrelated sentences.
E.g. Aunt Mathilda is very stout and owns a Rolls-Royce.

(c) DON'T over-use the conjunction and.
E.g. She felt ill and her mother told her to go to bed and she refused and so she died.

(d) DON'T run one sentence into the other without a conjunction.
E.g. Molly ran down the street, she went into the shop.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER THIRTEEN

1. Compare the sentence structure of the following pairs, and then say, for each, which you prefer and why:

   a) i) "You are a fat fool! You stink! Now get out!
      Irma screamed hysterically.

      ii) "Because you are a fat fool and stink, now get out!"
      Irma screamed hysterically.

   b) i) The screaming horde of savages bore down upon us. We fired frantically at them. But they continued to come on. Then I fainted.

      ii) As the screaming horde of savages bore down upon us, we fired frantically at them, but they continued to come on. Then I fainted.

   c) i) Bertie arrived home late. His mother scolded him.

      ii) Because Betie arrived home late, his mother scolded him.

   d) i) Miriam planted the eucalyptus tree. She watered it each day. Eventually it grew tall.

      ii) Miriam planted the eucalyptus tree which she watered each day until eventually grew tall.

2. Improve the sentence structure of each of the following. Give a clear reason each time:

   a) "I must go and find her, because I love her so much and I want her back!"

   b) Cedric climbed into his car. He turned the key. Nothing happened. He climbed out. He gave it a hard kick. It ran down the hill. It crashed.

   c) When Mrs Humphreys entered the shop, there was such a loud explosion that she, who normally does not faint easily, collapsed on the spot and died, thus causing her husband much grief.

   d) I like fish and chips and Elizabeth Tayl r is a famous actress.

   e) We packed our luggage and set out in the car and arrived at Hopetown and had breakfast.

   f) Willy ate the koeksuster, his fingers were sticky.

3. Make the innuendos in the following explicit (clear) by combining the sentences each time:

   a) The meeting became disorderly. The Van Heerdens had arrived.

   b) Henry visited his boss often. He later became chief clerk.

   c) Their politicians believe in entertaining lavishly. Their country is going bankrupt.

4. Combine (synthesise) the following pairs of sentences into non-simple sentences, each containing two clauses, so that each clause bears the relationship stated in brackets to the other:

   a) Milly fainted. Freddy kissed her. (CAUSE)
   b) Mrs Rosenberg practised her songs. She would do well at the concert. (PURPOSE)

5. Write a short paragraph (10 - 15 lines) on 'The Murder', consisting of only simple sentences. Then re-write it, synthesising any sentences you feel fit to do, and comment on the difference between the two versions.

6. Read the following lyric by Paul Simon, and then answer the questions that follow:

BRIDGE OVER TROUBLED WATER

When you're weary, feeling small,
When tears are in your eyes, I will dry them all;
I'm on your side. When times get rough
And friends just can't be found,
Like a bridge over troubled water
I will lay me down.
Like a bridge over troubled water
I will lay me down.

When you're down and out,
When you're on the street,
When evening falls so hard
I will comfort you.
I'll take your part.
When darkness comes
And pain is all around,
Like a bridge over troubled water
I will lay me down.
Like a bridge over troubled water
I will lay me down.

Sail on silvergirl,
Sail on by.
Your time has come to shine.
All your dreams are on their way.
See how they shine.
If you need a friend
I'm sailing right behind.
Like a bridge over troubled water
I will lay me down.
Like a bridge over troubled water
I will lay me down.

Paul Simon (1970)

a) State whether the following sentences are simple or non-simple, and give a reason for each answer:

i) Like a bridge over troubled water
I will lay me down.

ii) See how they shine.

iii) If you need a friend
I'm sailing right behind.

iv) I will comfort you.

b) Write down the underlying kernel sentences that were combined to form the following non-simple sentence:

When you're weary, feeling small,
When tears are in your eyes, I will dry them all.

c) Like a bridge over troubled water
I will lay me down.

i) Explain the simile, which is the basis of the whole song.

ii) List and explain all clauses that state when or under what circumstances he will act like a 'bridge' - i.e. which indicate all the various types of 'troubled waters'.

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