Functional English Grammar
An introduction for second language teachers

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GRAMATICA INGLESA III

PÁG 1 A 19 SOME BASIC CONCEPTS
+ GUÍA

12 (COPIAS)
1 Some basic concepts

This chapter will consider the nature of functional grammar and its relevance to language learning and teaching. It will then begin to explore some basic organizational principles of grammar and the relationship between grammar and meaning. Finally, a number of grammatical functions will be introduced and illustrated.

1.1 Formal and functional grammar

There are many ways of describing the grammar of a language. One approach sees grammar as a set of rules which specify all the possible grammatical structures of the language. In this approach, a clear distinction is usually made between grammatical (sometimes called well-formed) sentences and ungrammatical sentences. The primary concern is with the forms of grammatical structures and their relationship to one another, rather than with their meanings or their uses in different contexts. A grammarian interested in this kind of description will often use for analysis sentences that have been made up to illustrate different grammatical rules rather than sentences drawn from real world sources.

Another approach sees language first and foremost as a system of communication and analyzes grammar to discover how it is organized to allow speakers and writers to make and exchange meanings. Rather than insisting on a clear distinction between grammatical and ungrammatical forms, the focus is usually on the appropriateness of a form for a particular communicative purpose in a particular context. The primary concern is with the functions of structures and their constituents and with their meanings in context. A grammarian interested in this kind of description is likely to use data from authentic texts (the term text is used here for both spoken and written language) in specific contexts.

The former approach to grammatical analysis is often called formal, while the latter approach is normally called functional. The two ap-
approaches are not, of course, mutually exclusive. Formal analyses must at some stage take account of meaning and function, and functional analyses must at some stage take account of form. However, most descriptions of grammar can be located primarily within one or the other of these two approaches.

The difference between formal and functional approaches can be briefly and simply illustrated with the following sentence:

(1) I had also been rejected by the law faculty.

In analyzing the voice of this sentence, both formal and functional grammarians would agree in calling it a passive voice sentence. However, a formal grammarian would be primarily interested in finding the best abstract representation of the structure of the sentence and in how it might be related to the structure of the active voice sentence:

(1) a. The law faculty had also rejected me.

For example, rules can be set out to show how sentence 1 may be derived from sentence 1a. These would specify (1) the movement of the constituent the law faculty to a position at the end of the sentence following the preposition by; (2) the movement of the constituent me to the front of the sentence and its change in form to I; and (3) the change from had . . . rejected (an active form of the verb) to had . . . been rejected (a passive form of the verb).

A functional grammarian would also take note of such formal differences between the active and passive structures. However, he or she would be more concerned with questions such as (1) how the communicative effect of the message in the sentence is different when it begins with I rather than with the law faculty, (2) what the effect is of putting the law faculty at the end of the sentence, and (3) what features of the context may have led the writer to select passive rather than active voice. These kinds of questions would lead the linguist to consider the role of the voice system in organizing information within sentences and texts, and in contributing to coherent communication (questions that will be considered in Chapter 11 of this book).

1.2 Functional grammar and language teaching

Learning a second language is hard work and for most people involves a considerable commitment of time and effort. The work may sometimes be enjoyable, but learners do not usually undertake such a task without the expectation of a payoff. A few people, academic linguists perhaps, may embark upon the study of a language for the intellectual satisfaction of acquaintance with unfamiliar grammatical patterns and elegant paradigms of forms, but for most learners the payoff will be the ability to communicate with other speakers or writers of the language. To be of real use to language learners and teachers, therefore, a description of the grammar of a language needs to do more than simply lay out the forms and structures of the language. It needs to show what they are for and how they are used. As already noted, the primary aim of a functional grammatical analysis is to understand how the grammar of a language serves as a resource for making and exchanging meanings. A functional grammar is therefore the kind of grammar most likely to have useful things to say to language learners and teachers. (Issues in grammar and language teaching are explored more fully in Chapter 13.)

A number of "brands" of functional grammar have appeared within the last twenty years or so. As this is not a textbook in linguistics, the author has felt free to select and adapt insights from a number of sources. However, a good deal of the theoretical and analytical framework adopted in the book, as well as much of the terminology, is drawn from the work of systemic-functional linguists, in particular M. A. K. Halliday (e.g., Halliday 1978, 1994). Over the years, Halliday has had a great influence on both mother tongue and second language education, and systemic-functional analyses of English grammar have already proved themselves very useful in a number of applications, ranging from multilingual text generation by computer (e.g., Bateman et al. 1991) to the development of first language literacy (e.g., Martin 1993; Christie et al. 1992; Rothery 1984 and 1993). It seems likely that work coming from this tradition will have an increasing role in all areas of applied linguistics.

1.3 Levels of analysis

In studying how language works, linguists of all schools recognize several different levels of analysis. The following four levels are those usually identified:

Phonology
Lexis
Grammar
Semantics

Phonology refers to the sound system of a particular language, roughly corresponding to the more familiar term pronunciation. In this book, phonology will be touched upon only briefly.

Lexis refers to the words of a language, roughly corresponding to the more familiar term vocabulary.
Grammar includes two aspects: (1) the arrangement of words and (2) the internal structure of words. For example, in a sentence such as

(2) He kicked the ball out of the court.

we may be interested in how the words combine to form a meaningful sentence. This aspect of grammar is usually called syntax. However, we may also be interested in the fact that the word kicked can be divided into two parts – kick + ed. The first part represents an action and the second marks past tense. This aspect of grammar is called morphology. The focus of this book will be primarily on syntax rather than morphology.

Semantics refers to the systems of meaning in a language, for example, how sentences relate to the real world of people, actions, places, and so on.

There are no clear-cut dividing lines between the four levels of phonology, lexis, grammar, and semantics: different analyses will make the divisions in different ways. Taking a functional approach to grammar, this book is concerned with meaning to a much greater extent than a formal approach might be. In other words, this book examines areas which some grammarians might prefer to deal with separately under the rubric semantics. And since this book focuses on how grammar can express meaning, it also sometimes becomes difficult to draw a clear line between grammar and lexis (the two are in fact sometimes put on the same level and referred to as lexico-grammar).

1.4 The organization of grammar

The organization of grammar itself can now be considered. Two important concepts are needed for this, rank and class.

1.4.1 Rank

Rank refers to different levels of organization within grammar. Consider the following example:

(3) People throw stones. [inv.]

This stretch of language consists of one sentence and three words. Sentence and word are two ranks of grammatical organization, which in English are recognized in the writing system, the former by an initial capital letter and final full stop (or other final punctuation mark) and the latter by spaces between the units. As will be seen later, identification of sentences in speech is not so straightforward. However, it is useful to retain the term sentence for the highest rank of grammatical organization in both spoken and written English.

Speakers of English generally agree over boundaries between words. However, there may be some variation or indeterminacy about where some words begin and end. For example, should we write: non standard, nonstandard, or nonstandard? Linguists also sometimes recognize a single unit (technically lexical item) where the writing system has two or more words. For example, brought up as in she brought up the question first can be analyzed as one lexical item (compare: she raised the question first). However, for present purposes the term word as it is usually understood will be adequate.

It is also necessary to recognize ranks between sentence and word. For example, compare the following sentence with sentence 3.

(4) People who live in glass houses shouldn't throw stones.

Like number 3 (People throw stones), this sentence can be analyzed into three units. Two of these units can be regarded as expansions of single words in number 3.

(i) People who live in glass houses (expansion of people)
(ii) shouldn't throw (expansion of throw)
(iii) stones

These units are called groups. Note that one of the groups (iii) contains only one word, but it is still referred to as a group. Thus, this sentence consists of three groups, each of which consists of a number of words. Another way of saying this is that the words are units which are constituents of the groups and the three groups are units which are constituents of the sentence. This is set out in Figure 1.1.

Further patterns of organization can be recognized within the groups. These will be dealt with when the internal structures of the various types of groups are examined. It is not necessary to recognize any rank between group and word.

It is necessary, however, to recognize an additional rank between group and sentence. Take, for example, the following sentence.

(5) She's great fun but her husband's rather dull.

The two underlined units are called clauses. This sentence consists of two clauses, each of which consists of a number of groups, which themselves consist of a number of words, as shown in Figure 1.2. The word but, which is a conjunction and joins the two clauses, does not really belong to either clause, although it is conventionally analyzed as belonging to the second clause.

Thus, the analyses in this book will take into account four ranks within grammar: word, group, clause, and sentence.
1.4.2 Class

Terms like noun (N) and verb (V) are names of word classes (traditionally known as parts of speech). The words in sentence 3 can be labeled according to their class.

\[ \text{N V N} \]

People throw stones

The same class labels are also used to label the groups. Thus, in number 4, people who live in glass houses is a noun group (NG) and shouldn’t throw is a verb group (VQ).

Two other major word classes are adjective (Adj) and adverb (Adv) and the same class labels are also used to label the groups, for example:

(6) That’s good!

(7) We remained firm friends

1.4.3 Phrases

Where the term group has been used here, some grammars use the term phrase, for example, noun phrase and adverbial (adverbial) phrase for noun group and adverb group. However, in this book the only kind of phrase which is recognized is the prepositional phrase.

A clear distinction can be made between groups and phrases. As all the previous examples of groups show, a group can be thought of as an expanded word. A phrase, however, is more like a miniclause. For example, the following clauses contain a verb group followed by a noun group. The noun group functions as what later will be called the object.

**Clauses**

\[ \text{VQ NOBJ} \]

She slowly approached the two frightened boys . . .

\[ \text{VQ NOBJ} \]

The expedition had crossed the bridge that morning.

A prepositional phrase has a comparable structure, with a preposition (a word like to, from, behind, in, on, with, through, and about, or a complex preposition such as in front of, in spite of, and by means of) followed by a prepositional object. For example:

**Prepositional phrases**

\[ \text{PREP NG(PREP OJ)} \]

toward the two frightened boys

\[ \text{PREP NG(PREP OJ)} \]

across the bridge
In other words, the words following prepositions in prepositional phrases are not expansions of the prepositions but objects of prepositions. Prepositional phrases are therefore quite different kinds of structures from groups. Note, however, that prepositional phrases normally operate at the same rank as groups. We should, strictly speaking, therefore refer to group/phrase rank, rather than just group rank.

1.4.4 Embedding

One of the noun groups in number 4—people who live in glass houses—contains within it a clause—who live in glass houses. Cases of this kind, where one unit is used as a constituent of another unit at the same or a lower rank, are known as embedding. The clause who live in glass houses is therefore said to be embedded within the noun group people who live in glass houses. Embedding will be considered in more detail in Section 3.4.2.

Task 1a

1. Analyze the following sentences by identifying clauses, groups, and phrases, ignoring cases of embedding.
2. Label the word class of each group. (You may find it useful to look back at the examples given in Section 1.4.2.)
   a. Most probably the students will be producing some very good work.
   b. In my opinion the changes were made too quickly.
   c. He opened the door and strode into the hall.
   d. Columbus may not have discovered America, but his accomplishments brought the medieval world into a new era.
   e. At the start of the week, hopes for a peaceful conclusion to the dispute were quite high.

All tasks are discussed or answered at the end of each chapter. The reader is advised to do the tasks and read the discussions before continuing.

1.5 Meaning in grammar

In order to think about grammar as a resource for making and exchanging meanings, it is necessary to explore what might be meant by meaning. Three types of meaning within grammatical structures can be identified: experiential meaning, interpersonal meaning, and textual meaning.

1.5.1 Experiential meaning

Consider the following example:

(14) Peggy arrives at 8:30.

The question *What does this sentence mean?* might be answered by explaining what it is about. It is about one person (Peggy) performing an action in the past (arrived) at a certain time (at 8:30). Meaning in this sense is known as experiential meaning. Experiential meaning has to do with the ways language represents our experience (actual and vicarious) of the world as well as the inner world of our thoughts and feelings. In other words, it is concerned with how we talk about actions, happenings, feelings, beliefs, situations, states, and so on, the people and things involved in them, and the relevant circumstances of time, place, manner, and so on.

1.5.2 Interpersonal meaning

The following sentences are also possible:

(14) a. Did Peggy arrive at 8:30?
(14) b. Peggy might have arrived at 8:30.

Sentences 14a and 14b are still about the same things as number 14—one person performing an action at a certain time in the past. So they both have the same experiential meaning as number 14. However, they differ in other aspects of meaning.

Sentence 14 informs the listener that the event took place, whereas number 14a calls on the listener to confirm or deny that the event took place. The term *statement* is used to refer to sentences like number 14, and the term *question* is used to refer to sentences like number 14a. (These terms are further considered in Section 9.1.)

Sentence 14b is still a statement, but it introduces into the sentence an assessment by the speaker of the likelihood of the event actually having taken place.

Numbers 14a and 14b differ from number 14 (and from each other) in terms of their interpersonal meaning. Interpersonal meaning has to do with the ways in which we act upon one another through language—giving and requesting information, getting people to do things, and offering to do things ourselves—and the ways in which we express our judgments and attitudes—about such things as likelihood, necessity, and desirability.

1.5.3 Textual meaning

There are still other ways in which the experiential meaning of number 14 could be expressed, for example:
these with different linguistic expressions. However, in order to explore grammar as a communicative resource, it is more useful to start from the other end, in other words to investigate how language itself is organized to enable speakers (and writers) to express different kinds of meaning — experiential, interpersonal, and textual. The first step is to try to interpret the functions of grammatical structures and their constituents. Functions in this sense are sometimes called grammatical functions. These are the kinds of functions that this book is mainly concerned with.

1.6.1 Two grammatical functions: Subject and Finite

It was noted in Section 1.4.2 that words and groups can be labeled according to class. For example, the constituents of the following clause (from Extract 4) can be labeled in this way.

(15) With a quick movement of its tail, the sea-serpent would overturn

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PP</th>
<th>NG</th>
<th>VG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fishing boats . . .</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, this does not identify the functions of the constituents, that is, what the different classes of phrases and groups are doing in this particular clause. One function that may be familiar is that of Subject. (From now on the first letter of functions will always be uppercase.) In this clause, the noun group the sea-serpent is functioning as the Subject. Another way of putting it is to say that the Subject function in this clause is realized (i.e., expressed) by the noun group the sea-serpent.

A function closely associated with Subject is that of Finite. In this clause, the auxiliary (a subclass of verb) would is functioning as Finite. The functions Subject and Finite are crucial to the realization of mood, which is a system of the grammar centrally concerned with the expression of interpersonal meaning. Mood will be explored in some detail in Chapter 9. This chapter is concerned just with the identification and some of the formal characteristics of Subjects and Finities.

1.6.1.1 IDENTIFYING SUBJECTS

The most straightforward way to identify the Subject of a clause is to add to the clause what is called a tag. The pronoun in the tag refers back to the Subject of the clause, as illustrated in the following examples.

(15) a. . . . the sea-serpent would overturn fishing boats, wouldn't it?
1.6.1.2 IDENTIFYING FINITES

Finites can similarly be identified by the addition of a tag, which picks up not only the Subject but also the Finite of the preceding clause, as in numbers 15a to 18 above, in which the Finites are would, did, was, and have. In addition, Finites have the following characteristics:

1. If a verb group contains a Finite, the Finite will always be the first constituent of the verb group, for example, did in number 23 and have in the following:

   (24) Philosophers have lately been explaining.

2. Only Finites are marked for tense. For example, compare number 23 with:

   (23) a. They don’t really believe her

3. Only Finites are marked for number agreement, that is, their forms change according to the number and person of the Subject. This is seen most clearly with the verb be, for example:

   (26) a. The clown was very funny

   (27) a. They are measured in the same amount.

3. In declarative mood clauses (clauses that make statements, considered in detail in Chapter 9), the Subject is normally the noun group (or nominal clause) which immediately precedes the Finite, as in all the previous examples.

   (29) a. We are going to do an art activity.

1.6.1.3 CLAUSES WITHOUT FINITES

In traditional grammar, every clause was said to contain a Finite. However, most grammarians nowadays also recognize nonfinite clauses, that is, clauses without a finite form.

3 Strictly speaking, this should read absolute tense. The difference between absolute tense and relative tense will be explained in Chapter 8.
clauses which lack the function Finite. Note that the verb form Vs – the base form of the verb plus s (e.g., kicks and irregular forms like is and has) – is always Finite. A clause containing a Vs form will therefore always be a finite clause, for example:

Finite clause
(29) Bob never barks when he is working sheep.

On the other hand, the verb forms V-ing (e.g., being, having, and kicking) and to + V (the infinitive, e.g., to be, to have, to kick), are always nonfinite. Therefore clauses containing verb groups beginning with these forms will be nonfinite clauses, for example:

Nonfinite clause
(30) When working on taps, insert the plug and . . .

(31) It goes upstairs to be crushed between rollers . . .

The form V (e.g., have and kick), and, for many verbs, the form Ved (e.g., had and kicked), may be finite or nonfinite.4 For example:

Finite clause
(32) They pass all queries on to the course coordinator. [inv]

Nonfinite clause
(32) a. What they do is pass all queries on to the course coordinator.5

Nonfinite clause
(33) Eulogised in a Western constituency for probity and veracity, he is more often . . .

Finite clause
(33) a. They eulogised him for his probity and veracity.

However, some verbs with irregular finite Ved forms, such as broke, wrote, ate, was, and were, also have separate nonfinite forms (symbolized Ven), such as broken, written, eaten, and been. For example:

Finite clause
(34) Mr. Kohl wrote to Jacques Delors . . .

Nonfinite clause
(35) Written on bamboo tablets, the texts are mainly lists of . . .

Task 1b
Identify the Subject and the Finite of each finite clause in the following sentences.

4 An exception is the V form be, which is always nonfinite. The finite V forms of the verb be are am and are. Finite and nonfinite forms of the verb group are set out fully in Figure 4.1.

5 Note that this nonfinite clause is also a nominal clause.

1. I don't know why he always gets so angry about a few students talking in class.
2. The answers given by the students have on the whole been very good.
3. Despite all our hard work, the project will not be finished on time.
4. The territory in order to survive and prosper will need political stability.
5. To err is human, to forgive is — out of the question.
6. The slide-lathe enabled machines of precision to be made.
7. Only Princess Diana's wedding dress was awaited more impatiently, greeted more enthusiastically, and copied more slavishly than are new ideas in psychology.
8. There are problems with the identification of the Subject in existential clauses. [inv]

1.6.1.4 LEARNING AND TEACHING SUBJECT AND FINITE

Many languages, particularly non-Indo-European languages, do not have a regular distinction between finite and nonfinite verb forms in the way English does. However, mastering the functions of Subject and Finite from the beginning is important for second language learners. Without such mastery, they are likely to have many problems with basic sentence structure, with the formation of questions and negatives, and with the marking of tense and of number agreement.

Even fairly advanced learners sometimes use a nonfinite verb group where a finite verb group is required, for example:

(36) *I have little exercise except sometimes I swimming with my brother.

Note that in this example, the presence of the Subject I in the second clause requires the presence of a Finite. In other words, a nonfinite clause with neither Subject nor Finite would be possible (except sometimes swimming with my brother), or a finite clause with both functions (except I sometimes go swimming with my brother).

Problems with number agreement can be particularly persistent, as in the following from an advanced learner:

(37) *The level of imports during the last quarter of the year have begun to decline.

In this example, the problem no doubt lies in the identification of imports rather than level as the head (i.e., the part of the noun group which determines the number agreement; see Section 2.2.1) of the noun group which is functioning as Subject. Such lack of Subject-Finite agreement is quite common in native speaker speech and in many cases would hardly be
noticed. However, in formal written English such lack of agreement is regarded as unacceptable.

Questions for discussion

- How useful do you think it is for learners of English to have some explicit knowledge of the functions of Subject and Finite? How might this knowledge be developed?
- How can intermediate or advanced learners who still make frequent agreement errors in their written work be helped to develop self-editing skills in this area?

1.6.2 More functions: Object, Complement, Adjunct, and Predicator

Subject and Finite are just two functions that can be identified in clauses. In number 15 (With a quick movement of its tail, the sea-serpent would overturn fishing boats), the sea-serpent was identified as Subject and would as Finite. Two other functional constituents can be identified in this clause – an Object fishing boats and an Adjunct with a quick movement of its tail.

Objects normally follow the Finite and the rest of the verb group. Like Subjects, they are typically realized by noun groups. A characteristic of Objects is that they can normally become the Subjects of related passive voice clauses, as in the passive voice version of number 15.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Complement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(15) a. Fishing boats would be overturned by the sea-serpent . . .</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some clauses may have two Objects – an Indirect Object (IO) and a Direct Object (DO). The Indirect Object precedes the Direct Object. Both Objects can usually become Subjects of related passive voice clauses, for example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IO</th>
<th>DO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(38) I'll give you your paper</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(38) a. You will be given your paper . . .</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(38) b. Your paper will be given to you . . .</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, clauses which have linking verbs, like be, look, and have, do not have Objects. They have what are called Complements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Complement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(39) Most of the trees were eucalypts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. Four levels of linguistic analysis can be identified: semantics (meaning), grammar (the arrangement of words and word shape), lexis (vocabulary), and phonology (pronunciation).

3. Within grammar itself, four ranks of organization can be recognized: sentence, clause, group/phrase, and word.

4. A group can be thought of as an expanded word. A phrase has a structure which makes it more like a miniclause.

5. Embedding takes place when a unit of one rank is used as a constituent within another unit at the same or at a lower rank.

6. The major word classes are nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

7. Nearly every clause expresses three kinds of meaning: experiential meaning, which is concerned with the representation of our experience of the world and of the inner world of our thoughts and feelings; interpersonal meaning, which is concerned with language as interaction and the expression of judgments and attitudes; and textual meaning, which organizes the former two kinds of meaning into coherent text relevant to its context.

8. Five clause-rank grammatical functions are Subject, Finite, Predicator, Object, and Adjunct.

9. Subjects normally precede the Finite in declarative clauses and determine the person and number of the Finite (if marked). Subjects are typically realized by noun groups.

10. Finites are normally marked for tense and may be marked for number agreement (i.e., agreeing with the person and number of the Subject).

11. Predicator function is realized by everything in the verb group except the Finite.

12. Objects typically follow the Finite and Predicator in declarative clauses. A constituent functioning as Object in an active clause can normally become the Subject of a related passive clause. Objects are typically realized by noun groups.

13. Adjuncts are additional constituents that cannot become Subjects of related clauses and can often be omitted. Adjuncts are typically realized by adverb groups and prepositional phrases.

**Key terms introduced**

- *This text*
  - alternative(s) used in the field
  - adjective
  - adjunct
  - adverb
  - class

- *Clause Complex*
  - complement
  - conjunction
  - constituent
  - direct object
  - embedding
  - experiential meaning
  - finite
  - formal grammar
  - function
  - functional grammar
  - grammar group
  - indirect object
  - interpersonal meaning
  - lexis
  - morphology
  - nominal clauses
  - nonfinite clause
  - noun
  - number agreement
  - object
  - phonology
  - phrase
  - predicator
  - preposition
  - prepositional object
  - prepositional phrase
  - rank
  - semantics
  - sentence
  - subject
  - syntax
  - textual meaning
  - unit
  - verb
  - word

- (This term sometimes covers Direct Object, Indirect Object, and Complement)

- complement
  - relativization (for embedding of finite clauses only)
  - propositional, ideational (this latter term includes logical meaning as well as experiential meaning)
  - finite verb; finite auxiliary

- phrase (used for both group and phrase)
  - complement
  - interactional

- noun clauses
  - participial phrase, infinitive phrase

- Complement
  - Predicator sometimes refers to the function of the whole verb group, including the Finite

- prepositional complement

- clause complex

- pragmatic function (this term is sometimes extended to cover interpersonal meanings)
Note: You are strongly recommended to work with this study-guide conscientiously and to answer the questions in it and make sure you understand the aspects involved well. If you find you have difficulties understanding any of these aspects, contact the teachers or TAs in the chair to help you.

1. What is Formal Grammar?
2. What is Functional Grammar?
3. Which are the different levels of analysis in SFG?
4. What does Lexis refer to?
5. Which two aspects does Grammar include?
6. What is Semantics?
7. How is Language organised hierarchically?
8. Which are the different ranks within Grammar?
9. Which are the word classes in SFG?
10. What is the difference between ‘phrase’ and ‘group’?
11. What is ‘Embedding’?
12. Mention the types of meaning that can be identified within SFG?
13. What does the Experiential Meaning have to do with?
14. What does the Interpersonal Meaning refer to?
15. What is the Textual Meaning concerned with?
16. How can the word Function be used in relation to Grammar?
17. Which are the grammatical functions referred to by Lock?
18. How can the Subject be identified?
19. And the Finite?
20. What are Non Finite clauses?
21. Where do Objects normally occur?
22. Describe some characteristics of Objects.
23. How many kinds of Objects are there?
24. What are Complements?
25. How are Adjuncts typically realised?
26. What is a Predicator?