

ERRORS IN THE 'COALFACE GRAMMAR'

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In 2007 the ETAQ journal *Words'Worth* published a series of eight articles with the general title 'Grammar at the Coalface'; the material was explicitly presented as a teaching resource, and the context in which it was prepared was described in the Preface to the first issue as follows:

For the past twenty years, functional grammar has been promoted in Queensland schools, and professional organisations and individuals have conducted seminars and workshops to assist teachers. Follow-up messages show that many teachers are still uncertain how to include functional grammar in classrooms. This year, ETAQ has decided to include regular classroom-level support in this area through this journal.

Two of the articles, subtitled 'The structural basics' (in the March issue) and 'Functional elements in a clause' (in the June issue), gave a short account of English grammar predominantly from a functional grammar perspective; I shall refer to them jointly as the Coalface Grammar. Unfortunately, the Coalface Grammar contains a very large number of errors, and presents a highly defective account of English grammar in general and functional grammar in particular. The present paper provides detailed evidence in support of that judgement.

The bulk of the paper (§II) consists of a detailed page-by-page catalogue of errors in the two articles. It is preceded by a relatively short introduction (§I) emphasising that the errors are indeed real errors – and the paper ends with a brief conclusion (§III). But first I give a summary sample of errors, aimed at giving a quick initial idea of the seriousness of the problem; the reference at the end of each is to the numbered item in §II where the error concerned is cited and discussed.

- [A] *Sam's* in *Sam's folder* is classified as a possessive pronoun: it is the possessive form of a proper noun. [60]
- [B] *Set of* in *a set of bowls* is classified as an adjective: it is not a grammatical unit at all, but a noun followed by a preposition. [46]
- [C] *What* in *They saw what lay before them* is classified as a conjunction: it is a pronoun (functioning as Subject of the subordinate clause). [29]
- [D] *His* is classified as simultaneously a pronoun and a determiner: this is theoretically impossible, for pronoun and determiner have been presented as distinct word classes. [45]
- [E] Determiners are said to appear as determining adjectives in noun groups: again, this is impossible because determiner and adjective have been presented as distinct word classes. [25]
- [F] The demonstratives *this*, *that*, etc. (as used with a following noun, as in *this book*, *that car*) are inconsistently treated now as adjectives, now as determiners [22].
- [G] No classification is provided at group/phrase rank for expressions headed by an adjective, such as *very hungry*. [32]
- [H] *By himself* is classified as an adverb: it is a preposition phrase. [30]
- [I] The function of complement is first introduced in the traditional sense where it contrasts with object, but this is inconsistent with its use in the glossary in functional grammar's sense, where it covers both traditional objects and complements. Functional grammar's concept of a complement as a potential subject is presented but without mention of the fact that it doesn't apply to attributes – and in the early section where complement is contrasted with object the potential subject property is presented as applying to complements instead

- of objects. [7, 37]
- [J] When the rank scale is introduced in the first article it is said that 'Elements of each rank combine to form the next highest rank': this fails to allow for rankshift, where a unit of a given rank functions in the structure of a unit of the same or lower rank. There is no account of rankshift in this article even though it is in fact involved in some of the constructions covered. [2]
- [K] Downranking is mentioned later in the first article, but the example given doesn't involve downranking in functional grammar's sense and indeed has nothing to do with rank: the underlined non-finite clause in *Playing together yesterday, they tore their clothes* is said to be downranked from the full or finite clause *when they played together yesterday*, but both are units of clause rank operating in the structure of a clause complex. [36]
- [L] The subject is first defined as the doer (functional grammar's actor) and then, inconsistently, as something about which an assertion is made (roughly functional grammar's theme), while theme is said to be 'known' (confusing functional grammar's theme with given). [37, 39, 56]
- [M] Participants are said to be realised by noun groups or by adjectives expressing attributes, but the second example given to illustrate this has a participant with the form of a preposition phrase. [44]
- [N] While the underlined expression in *the books we want fell from the shelves* is correctly classified as definite, that in *the books fell from the shelves* is said to be indefinite: it too is definite, marked as such by the definite article *the*. [27]
- [O] Imperative clauses are DEFINED as lacking a Subject: imperatives USUALLY have no Subject, but nevertheless imperatives containing an overt Subject, such as *You have a nice day* or *Don't you worry about it*, are commonplace. [51]
- [P] Prepositions are said to appear as Head in preposition phrases – but on the next page we are told that preposition phrases have no Head. [28]
- [Q] Such expressions as *have a peep* and *wants to help* are classified as verbs, though verb is a word class: they are not verbs but syntactic constructions consisting respectively of a verb + object noun group and a verb + infinitival clause construction [15, 47].
- [R] It is said that pronouns do not inflect, but in fact personal and relative/interrogative pronouns inflect for case [23]
- [S] The account of adverbs says that they don't inflect, but there are a number of common adverbs that inflect for grade, e.g. *soon, fast, early, late, hard* (cf. *soon, sooner, soonest*, etc.). Moreover, although inflection is correctly presented as a matter of the form of individual words, expressions like *more swollen* are given as examples of adjective inflection, though *more carefully* is not treated as adverb inflection [10, 19].
- [T] The account of tense inflection is inconsistent. While it is once said correctly that English has two inflectional tenses, past and present, it is said elsewhere that there are three, past, present and future. English certainly doesn't have a future tense INFLECTION, and it doesn't make sense to say that *will* is INFLECTED for future tense [6, 38].
- [U] *A pair* is classified as an adjective: it is a noun group. [11]
- [V] The account of grammatical structures begins with a presentation of the 'rank scale' consisting of clause complexes, clauses, word groups and phrases, words and morphemes. The clause complex is said to be the highest unit, but then five lines later the clause is said to be the highest unit. [1]
- [W] *Won't* in *The small boy won't eat his lunch* is classified as an adverb: it is a verb. [14]
- [X] *Capable of* in *The small boy is capable of eating his lunch* is likewise classified as an adverb: it is not a grammatical unit of any kind, but an adjective followed by a preposition. [14]
- [Y] *More* and *most* in *more/most swollen* are classified as adjectives: they are adverbs. [10]
- [Z] *Who* in *the explorer who saw the carnage* is classified as a conjunction: it is a pronoun. [29]

§I. Introduction.

The majority of the errors identified here were discussed in an earlier paper of mine, 'Problems with the Coalface Grammar', that was also posted for a period on the ETAQ website.¹ I recommended that the Coalface Grammar should be revised and fully corrected, but this was not done, and members of the association may have formed the impression that there was, after all, not too much wrong with it. Such an impression would be quite mistaken, and I have written this new paper with the aim of demonstrating more clearly that the Coalface Grammar is indeed full of errors, many of them very serious, and that in its present form it is therefore quite unsuitable for use as a teaching resource.

In this introductory section I look in turn at three possible reasons why ETAQ members might think that there is not too much wrong with the Coalface Grammar – and show that none of them is valid.

§Ia. Not a matter of just a few relatively minor errors.

In the March 2008 *Words'Worth* there is on p. 57 a paragraph headed 'Errata' which acknowledges just four errors: items [W]–[Z] in my sample above; and in the September 2008 issue (p. 4) two others, [U] and [V], were acknowledged (though with the former a *pair* was amended to *pair of*, another error like *set of*, item [B]). Readers may therefore have inferred that there were just half a dozen real errors in the articles. But that is not true: the six acknowledged represent less than ten percent of the errors listed in §II below. Moreover, it is now over eighteen months since I submitted the earlier 'Problems' paper, but in this time not one of the errors I discussed has been argued to be not a genuine error. Not a single one!

Nor should it be thought that the errors are relatively minor: many are very serious indeed. Consider, for example, the first two on my sample list: the classification of *Sam's* as a possessive pronoun and of *set of* as an adjective.

There can be no question of *Sam's* being a possessive pronoun:

- This analysis is inconsistent with the (correct) statement elsewhere in the Coalface Grammar that pronouns are a closed class, i.e. a fairly small class of items that does not easily accept new members, for *Sam's* clearly belongs in a very large and indeed open-ended class of possessive forms of names.
- The analysis is also inconsistent with the Coalface Grammar's statement that nouns inflect for case, according to which *Sam's* is a noun, the possessive counterpart of common case *Sam*.
- One can confidently predict that there is no reputable traditional or modern grammar of English that classifies *Sam's* as a pronoun, yet the Coalface Grammar does not draw the reader's attention to its unorthodox analysis, let alone provide any evidence to justify it.
- The Coalface Grammar does not introduce the concepts need to provide a correct description of *Sam's folder*: I return to this point in §Ib below.

Similarly there are compelling arguments against treating *set of* as an adjective:

- Nouns generally inflect for number, but adjectives do not, so the contrast between *a set of bowls* and *some sets of bowls* shows that *set* is a noun.
- In noun group structure the demonstrative determiners *this* and *that* agree with the head noun (cf. *this boy* vs *these boys*, *that girl* vs *those girls*), so the contrast between *this set of bowls* and *these sets of bowls* shows that *set(s)* is the Head noun in the group.
- *Set of* is not a word, as evident from the fact that the two components need not be adjacent (cf. *a set or two of bowls*).

¹ It is currently accessible at <http://www.ling.ed.ac.uk/~gpullum/grammar/otherstuff.html>.

- Again one can confidently predict that the adjective analysis will not be found in reputable grammars of English but the reader is not alerted to its unorthodoxy or given any explanation for it.

It's difficult to see how teachers could be other than seriously confused by such analyses: they won't be able to reconcile them with other statements in the Coalface Grammar and won't be in a position to explain and justify them to their own students.

§Ib. Not a matter of a difference of perspective between structural and functional grammar.

In the September 2008 *Words'Worth* it is suggested (p. 4) that many of my criticisms are a result of my taking a different theoretical perspective than the Coalface Grammar, which takes a predominantly functional grammar perspective, as noted above. This is not true. In preparation for my 'Problems' paper, I made a careful study of the revised edition of the major text in functional grammar, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* (henceforth *IFG*),² to confirm that the analyses I was claiming to be errors were not sanctioned by functional grammar. Thus functional grammar does not, for example, classify words like *Sam's* as possessive pronouns or analyse two-word sequences like *set of* as adjectives, and so on.

The importance of this point cannot be overstated. The aim of the Coalface project was to help teachers make use of functional grammar in the classroom, yet the Coalface Grammar massively misrepresents functional grammar. This can be demonstrated quite objectively by comparing the Coalface Grammar analyses with those in *IFG*. The *IFG* analysis of possessive expressions like *Sam's* in *Sam's folder*, for example, is given on p. 314, where *John's* is listed as a rankshifted nominal group functioning as Deictic in the structure of a larger nominal group. *Sam's folder* is accordingly a nominal group containing the rankshifted nominal group *Sam's* in Deictic function with *folder* the Head noun; within the rankshifted nominal group, *Sam's* is a noun functioning as the Head. Thus functional grammar, like other modern or traditional approaches, treats *Sam's* as a possessive noun, not a pronoun. Or take the case of *set of* in *a set of bowls*. *IFG* deals with this kind of construction on pp. 332–4, using such examples as *a pack of cards*, *a cup of tea*, *a slice of cake*. Functional grammar assigns two simultaneous structures to such expressions (just as it assigns three simultaneous structures to clauses, as outlined in Part 2 of the Coalface Grammar) It is not necessary to describe them in detail here: it is sufficient to say that in both *pack*, *cup* and *slice* are analysed as nouns, and the same will apply to *set* in *a set of bowls*. Thus the Coalface Grammar's analysis of *set of* as an adjective cannot be defended by saying that it reflects a functional perspective: it is just as much in conflict with functional grammar as it is with other approaches.

The same can be said of the other errors in my catalogue: there are none that can be defended as representing functional grammar's analysis. Instead of discussing further examples at this point, let me provide a different kind of evidence that this is so. Last year I wrote to the President of the Australian Linguistics Society, Professor Randy LaPolla, asking him for his views on the Coalface Grammar and my critique of it. I had never met or corresponded with him, so that he was a quite independent judge, and he was particularly well qualified for this role as he had taught functional grammar at university level more than a dozen times. In a letter giving his opinion, he wrote '[Professor Huddleston's] criticisms of [the Coalface Grammar] (in Part 1 of his paper) were largely from the viewpoint of functional grammar, and so were essentially the same as mine, and not criticisms that could be said to be due to him having a different theoretical stance'. He strongly endorsed my recommendation that the Coalface Grammar be revised and corrected.

² The book, published by Arnold, has appeared in three editions: the first two, in 1985 and 1994, were written by M.A.K. Halliday alone, while the third (2004) was a revision by C.C.M. Matthiessen. Except where otherwise stated, references in the present paper are to the third edition.

Before leaving this issue I want to draw attention to one very important matter on which the Coalface Grammar fails to consistently follow a functional perspective. This is the distinction that functional grammar (like many other approaches) draws between grammatical FUNCTIONS and grammatical CLASSES. A function is a relational concept: when we say that in *The meeting started late*, for example, *the meeting* is Subject, we are describing its relation to the verb; in *They started the meeting late*, by contrast, *the meeting* stands in a different relation to the verb and is functioning as Object. A class, on the other hand, is a set of expressions which are alike in the language system: when we say that *the meeting* is a noun group we are saying that it behaves grammatically in broadly the same way as *a book, that car, my uncle*, and so on. Functional grammar is so called because of the emphasis that it places on describing the function of items, not merely their class. This can be illustrated using the example *the famous jacaranda trees of Pretoria* discussed in IFG:39. The expression can be analysed in terms of a sequence of classes as `determiner + adjective + noun + noun + preposition + noun':

Such a sequence of classes is called a `syntagm'. However, this tells us very little about how it is organized or what it means. The significance of such a syntagm is that here it is the realization of a **structure**: an organic configuration of elements, which we can analyse in functional terms. *trees* denotes the category of entity being referred to; we designate its function as Thing. *jacaranda* denotes the class within this general category; it functions here as Classifier. *the* has a pointing out function, known as Deictic: it signals that some particular member(s) of this class is or are being referred to. *famous* is one of a special set of adjectives that occur straight after the Deictic, still contributing to the pointing function; we will call these simply Post-Deictic. We then have to wait until after the Thing to find out which jacaranda trees are meant: it is those `of Pretoria', with *of Pretoria* functioning as Qualifier.

It won't do, then, to analyse the expression simply as a syntagm: we must describe the structure, namely `Deictic + Post-Deictic + Classifier + Thing + Qualifier'. (Functional grammar distinguishes notationally between function and class terms by using an initial capital for the former; I am following this convention in the present document.)

A good number of the errors in the Coalface Grammar result from a failure to apply this distinction between functions and classes. Take, for example, item [D] on my sample list: the classification of *his* as simultaneously a pronoun and a determiner. This is theoretically incoherent because pronoun and determiner are presented as distinct parts of speech which means that no particular instance of a word can belong to more than one part of speech (leaving aside occasional ambiguities³). The classification of *his* as a pronoun reflects the fact that it belongs in a set with *he, him* and *himself*, while the classification of it as a determiner reflects its similarity to words like *the, a, this*, etc. But, for the reason just given, these relationships cannot both be handled in terms of CLASS: *his* can't be both a pronoun and a determiner. The solution is to handle the second relationship in terms of FUNCTION: *his* in *his coach* has the same function as *the* in *the coach* – i.e. it stands in the same relation to the Head noun *coach*. The Coalface Grammar, however, can't handle it this way because it hasn't introduced, and provided a name for, the relevant function – the function of *his* in *his coach* and of *the* in *the coach*, the function called Deictic in the above quotation. As a result, the Coalface Grammar is unable to say that the Deictic function can be filled by words of different classes, determiner and possessive pronoun. And it is the same omission of functional grammar's Deictic function that leads to the incoherence in error [E] from my list. Determiner and adjective are names of classes, so it is

³ Such as we have, for example, in *Time flies*: in the salient reading, *time* is a noun and *flies* a verb, and the whole is a declarative clause; in another grammatically possible, but somewhat far-fetched, reading the whole is an imperative clause with *time* a verb and *flies* a (plural) noun.

impossible for determiners to 'appear as adjectives': what should have been said is that determiners appear as (or, better, function as) Deictic, but again the Coalface Grammar can't say this because it hasn't introduced the functional concept of Deictic.

Far from it being the case that errors I have noted can be dismissed on the grounds that I failed to evaluate the work from a functional perspective, it is the Coalface Grammar's failure to apply systematically general principles or particular analyses of functional grammar that is the cause of numerous errors involving the misrepresentation of functional grammar.

§Ic. Not a matter of mere differences of opinion.

Members of ETAQ may also have been given the impression that what I have called errors in the Coalface Grammar are not really errors but merely opinions that differ from mine. There are of course places in English grammar where we find differences of opinion between reputable works. Some grammars, for example, divide a clause like *The boss alienated the workers* initially into two parts, a Subject (*the boss*) and a Predicate (*alienated the workers*), with the latter then divided into Predicator (*alienated*) and Complement (*the workers*), but others divide it immediately into three parts, Subject (*the boss*), Predicator (*alienated*) and Complement (*the workers*). In such cases we can recognise an agreement to disagree: I might say 'I disagree with your analysis, but I accept that you have respectable reasons for adopting it'. However, none of the points raised in my critique were of this kind. Note, for example, that one could not possibly say 'I disagree with the Coalface Grammar's analysis of *Sam's* as a possessive pronoun, but I accept that there are respectable arguments to support it'. There are no respectable arguments to support the possessive pronoun analysis: it is simply untenable. The Coalface Grammar offers no evidence for it and could not do so for the reasons I have given above. The reader is not even warned that it is a highly unorthodox analysis.

Many of the errors involve inconsistencies and there could be no question of these being admissible opinions. Take item [P] on my list, for example. Many grammarians analyse prepositions as Heads of preposition phrases (with *on*, for example, Head in *on the table*), whereas others take the view that the preposition phrase is not a construction that can be analysed into a Head + Dependent – but you can't embrace the first view on one page and the second on the next: a work must obviously be internally consistent.

One special feature of the Coalface Grammar that severely limits what could be regarded as a reputable, publishable opinion is that it is explicitly presented as a teaching resource, a work that teachers will use in preparing classroom material. Opinions expressed in it must therefore be judged by the criterion 'Is it acceptable that this should be taught to school students?'. Is it acceptable that school students should be taught that *Sam's* is a possessive pronoun, that *set of* is an adjective, that you can't have a Subject in an imperative clause, that *the books* (in *the books fell from the shelves*) is indefinite, and so on? Surely the answer to these questions must be a resounding, unequivocal 'No'. A situation where Queensland school students were being systematically taught this material does not bear contemplation: it would be an educational disaster. Students who gave Coalface answers in tests or examinations would be marked wrong, and regarded as lacking basic knowledge of English grammar. The Coalface Grammar is therefore quite unsuitable as a teaching resource.

§II. Schedule of errors

In this, the main section of the paper, I catalogue – though certainly not exhaustively – the theoretical and descriptive errors in the Coalface Grammar. I present the material somewhat differently than in my 'Problems' article in order to make the errors easier to see and check. I cite and number passages from the two articles in the order in which they appear, indenting them from both left and right margins; I then explain what is objectionable in them. The location of the passages is given in the form '1:41R', '2:53L' and the like: these refer respectively to the right-hand column on p. 41 of Part 1 (the first article: 'The structural basics')

and the left-hand column of p. 53 of Part 2 (the second article: 'Functional elements in a clause'). In general, I have excluded from consideration the material headed 'Possible focused learning episodes' in Part 1 (pp. 42R–44) and 'Possible learning exercises' in Part 2 (p. 55),⁴ and I have also excluded the first two pages of Part 1, which form an introduction: effectively, therefore, all the errors noted fall within a mere fifteen and a half pages of text.

All instances of small capitals have been added by me to highlight the most important parts of the quotation. There are a number of places where the Coalface Grammar is inconsistent in the use of italics (as, for instance in 'determiners such as articles, e.g. a, *the*, *some*' in [22], where 'a' should be italicised): I have taken the liberty of silently correcting such cases to avoid irrelevant distractions.

Expressions like *the old man* are called 'noun groups' in the Coalface Grammar and 'nominal groups' in functional grammar: I use both terms, depending on which is more appropriate to the context.

[1] 1:35L

Structural elements comprise:

- clause complexes
- clauses
- word groups and phrases
- words
- morphemes.

These levels of structure, referred to as the rank scale, are described below, from the smallest, morpheme, to the LARGEST, CLAUSE COMPLEX. ... Morphemes carry only elements of semantic / worldly information and of grammatical information. At the other extreme of the rank scale, the LARGEST STRUCTURE, THE CLAUSE, is the smallest unit of meaning in a text.

There is an obvious inconsistency here in that the largest level of structure is identified first as the clause complex and then (just three sentences later) as the clause. This error was acknowledged in the September 2008 *Words'Worth*.

[2] 1:35

Elements of each rank COMBINE TO FORM THE NEXT HIGHEST RANK.

This sentence appears in the position marked '...' in quotation [1]. It represents an unacceptable distortion and misrepresentation of functional grammar's rank theory, for it fails to mention the crucial concept of RANKSHIFT, or DOWNRANKING. According to functional grammar, one or more units of a given rank combine to form a unit at the next higher rank IN THE SIMPLEST CASES, but it is also possible for a unit to be rankshifted so as to function in the structure of a unit of the same or lower rank. Compare, for example,

[i] *The bride arrived rather late.*

[ii] *The father of the bride arrived rather late.*

In [i] *the bride* is a group (a nominal group) which combines with the groups *arrived* and *rather late* to form a clause, i.e. a unit at the next higher rank. But in [ii] *the bride* is not functioning directly in the structure of a clause: it is rankshifted to function in the structure of the

⁴ There are, however, two places where I refer to the learning material where it is relevant to a point being made about the core part of the work.

preposition phrase *of the bride*, and this in turn is rankshifted to function in the structure of the nominal group *the father of the bride*.

It won't do to claim that the omission of rankshift is justified by the need to simplify in a short sketch of the grammar: rankshift is not a rare or exceptional phenomenon. On the contrary, it is extremely common: you can't get anywhere in textual analysis unless you allow for rankshift. (All preposition phrases involve rankshift, as do possessive nominal groups like that underlined in *the bride's father*, and many cases of subordinate clauses are rankshifted too, and so on.) Apart from one case where the term 'downranking' is used but misapplied (cf. [36] below), no mention is made of rankshift/downranking in Part 1 of the Coalface Grammar, though it is in fact involved in some of the constructions discussed (such as the above example of a noun group rankshifted into the structure of a preposition phrase); rankshift is illustrated in Part 2, but in the context of information packaging (see [58]): there is no explanation of the concept, and no acknowledgement that it represents an exception to the account of rank given in Part 1.

[3] 1:35L

For example, in the clause, *Untried men competed against him*, the structural elements can be presented thus:

Clause: *Untried men competed against him*

Word groups and phrases: *Untried men/ competed/ against him*

Words: *Untried / men / competed/ against / him*

Morphemes: *Un/ tried/ men/ compet/ ed /a/ gainst / him*

Diagrammatically, these can be represented as follows in Figure 2:
Relationships between elements in the rank scale.

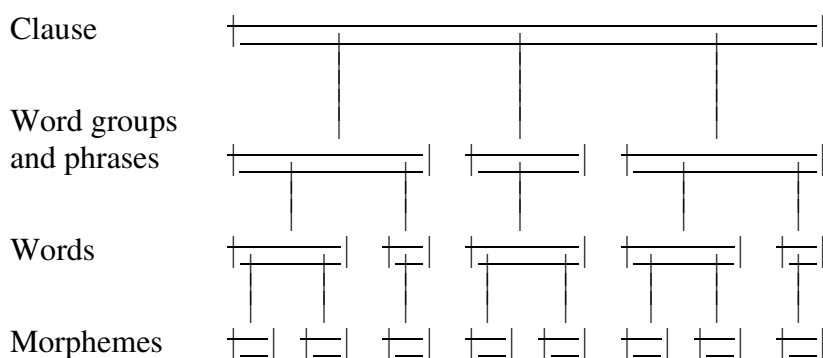


Figure 2: Relationships between elements in the rank scale⁵

This passage is a continuation of the one cited in [1] above: it is intended to provide an example of the analysis of a sentence in terms of the rank scale. It contains at least four errors.

(a) In the first place, it needs amendment to cater for the rank of clause complex. Thus we need an extra level at the top of the diagram, showing that *Untried men competed against him* is a clause complex consisting of a single clause. (That a clause complex can consist of a single

⁵ For typographical reasons I have used just vertical lines to link units at the different ranks, but the interpretation is clear: the clause is divided into three units at the word group/phrase rank; the first word group is divided into two words; and the first word is divided into two morphemes; and so on.

independent clause is stated explicitly on p. 41.)

(b) Secondly, the word *him* does not function directly in the structure of the preposition phrase *against him*: rather, *him* functions as the sole element in a noun group, and it is this group, not the word as such, that is object of the preposition *against*. This, then, is a case of rankshift: the noun group *him* functions not in the structure of a unit at the next higher rank (the clause), but in the structure of a unit at the same rank (group/phrase). The diagram is thus inconsistent with what is said about pronouns on p. 38 ('[Pronouns] appear as head words in noun groups ...') and about preposition phrases on p. 40 ('A preposition phrase comprises a preposition and a noun group').

(c) Thirdly, *untried* consists of three morphemes, not two: `un-', `tri-' (a variant of *try*), and `-ed' (the past participle morpheme).

(d) The analysis of *men* as consisting of a single morpheme is inconsistent with standard morphemic analysis and with what is said in the following paragraph (see [4] below): it consists of a root and a plural morpheme.

Note that it would have been easy to construct, for initial illustration, an example without rankshift or problematic analyses of words into morphemes – e.g. *The teacher will give you the answers*.

[4] 1:35R

Morphemes

Morphemes are the building blocks of words. Many are derived from word roots and affixes – suffixes and prefixes. Morphemes are of two kinds: free morphemes and bound morphemes. Free morphemes can form words on their own or with other free morphemes, e.g., *lunch* and *box*, and *lunchbox*. BOUND MORPHEMES, dependent on free morphemes, include prefixes and suffixes as well as INFLECTIONS MARKING NUMBER (singular or plural), POSSESSION, PERSON (first person – person speaking; second person – person spoken to, third person – person spoken about) and TENSE (present, past, and future), e.g., *disgrace*, *boy/boys*, *infant's toy*, *eats/eat*, *eats/ate*.

The last sentence here confuses MORPHEMES and INFLECTIONAL PROPERTIES. Although plural *boys* can be analysed into a root morpheme and a plural suffix, singular *boy* can't be analysed into two morphemes: the word *boy* is a noun with the inflectional property singular, but it doesn't contain a singular morpheme. Note that while the Coalface Grammar highlights the prefix in *disgrace* by underlining, there is no underlining in the inflectional forms, reflecting the fact that in forms like *boy* there is no bound morpheme that could be underlined.

Note, moreover, that while morpheme theory does have two morphemes in *ate*, a root and a past tense morpheme, they are not separately identifiable in the form of the word; the plural form *men* mentioned in [3] is similar: classical morphemic analysis developed a set of concepts to handle such irregularities. The Coalface Grammar doesn't even mention the problem, or recognise that such forms are inconsistent with what was said at the beginning of the 'Grammatical structures' section: 'Grammar comprises structural elements that are visible in written texts or audible in spoken texts'. These structural elements include morphemes, but the statement is clearly not consistent with what is said about bound inflectional morphemes: the implied singular morpheme in *boy*, the past tense morpheme in *ate*, the plural morpheme in *men* are not visible elements.

[5] 1:35R

Words

... words belong to open word classes or closed word classes. Open word classes ... comprise NOUNS and ADJECTIVES, VERBS and ADVERBS. Closed word classes ... comprise PRONOUNS, articles or DETERMINERS, PREPOSITIONS, and CONJUNCTIONS.

Word classes or 'parts of speech' fall into three groups:

- nominals are nouns and other kinds of words that function with them. They include: NOUNS, PRONOUNS, DETERMINERS, NUMERALS, and ADJECTIVES
- verbials are verbs and other kinds of words that function with them. They include: VERBS (lexical, auxiliary, finite), and PREPOSITIONS
- adverbials are ADVERBS and CONJUNCTIONS.

These relationships are explained in the descriptions of word classes, below.

There are two points to be made here.

(a) The first paragraph introduces the eight word classes, or parts of speech, that are distinguished in the following section on 'Word classes' (where 'determiner' rather than 'article' is used as the name of the second closed class). The second paragraph divides the parts of speech into three groups, but this time we have nine classes, not eight: numeral is now treated as a part of speech. This inconsistency is no doubt due to the fact that the second paragraph is largely based on functional grammar whereas the first is more or less the traditional classification (which uses the term 'article' rather than 'determiner'; I ignore the omission of the minor class of interjection). Either the two sets should be made to match or it should be explained why they don't.

The inconsistency is repeated later in the article: on p. 6, for example, *ten* is treated as an adjective, whereas on p. 40 we read: 'A *noun group* comprises a noun (or pronoun) and optional dependent words such as determiner, NUMERAL, ADJECTIVES', with numeral now distinct from adjective.

Note also that while functional grammar uses the term 'Numerative' as the name of the FUNCTION realised by numerals (*IFG*:317–8), the Coalface Grammar confusingly uses this term for a SUBCLASS of adjectives (see [11] below).

(b) The terms 'nominal', 'verbial', 'adverbial' introduced in the second paragraph of quotation [5] are not used again in Part 1 and not at all in Part 2, and the claim made in the last sentence is false: there is no such discussion of the relationships.

[6] 1:36L

Word classes are typically described according to six kinds of grammatical criteria:

...

3. inflection (whether 'bound' grammatical morphemes* are used to express grammatical contrasts such as singular/plural, and PRESENT/PAST/FUTURE TENSE, first/second/third person)

It is a controversial question whether English has a future tense at all, but no grammars suggest it has a future tense INFLECTION. In functional grammar *will go* is the primary future tense, but it is marked as such by the presence of a separate word, *will*, not by an inflection on the 'lexical' verb – and not by a bound morpheme.

The same error is found on p. 35R (see [4] above) and p. 41R ([38] below), but again we find inconsistency, for on p. 37R verbs are said correctly to inflect for present and past tense.

[Note also that the `*' following `morphemes' is said to mark a word dealt with in the glossary, but there is no glossary entry for `morphemes'.]

[7] 1:36L

Nouns ...

1. nouns appear as head words in noun groups that function as:
 - subject *in a clause, e.g., *The small boy in *The small boy ate his lunch.**
 - OBJECT *in a clause, e.g., *his lunch in *The small boy ate his lunch.**
 - COMPLEMENT* in a clause, e.g., *This is his lunch.* [A COMPLEMENT HAS THE POTENTIAL TO BE A SUBJECT.]
 - object of a preposition, e.g., *The small boy ate his lunch under the tree.*

This provides a striking example of the inconsistency and confusion that can arise if elements from traditional grammar and functional grammar are combined without due care. The distinction between Object and Complement is made in traditional grammar but not in functional grammar, where `Complement' covers both traditional terms – cf. *IFG:123*:

It will be noted that the Complement covers what are `objects' as well as what are complements in the traditional school grammar. But that distinction has no place in the interpersonal structure; it is imported from the experiential analysis, that of transitivity. Since the term `object' is strongly associated with the formal analysis [as opposed to the functional analysis] of transitivity, we use Complement as the term for this single element within the Residue.

Now it might reasonably be argued that a short sketch for teachers should cover the traditional distinction, but if that decision is made it will not do to use the term Complement in both the traditional and the functional grammar senses. Yet that is what the Coalface Grammar does. In the passage quoted, the term has the traditional sense in which it is distinct from Object, but in the glossary entry for Complement it has the functional grammar sense in which it covers both traditional terms. What is worse, the annotation attached to Complement in the above quotation applies to the sense the term has in functional grammar, not traditional grammar. No account is given here of what the annotation means, but in the glossary entry it is clear that it concerns systematic correspondences between different clause constructions. Thus the active clause *Sam gave the lunch to Jodi*, where *the lunch* is a traditional Object, corresponds to the passive clause *The lunch was given to Jodi by Sam*, where it is Subject: *the lunch* in the active is thus a POTENTIAL Subject in that the clause is systematically related to one where it is Subject. Now although the traditional Complement in *This is his lunch* is a potential Subject in that the clause corresponds to *His lunch is this*, the majority of traditional Complements are not potential Subjects. Thus *He is ill*, with *ill* a traditional Complement, has no counterpart with *ill* as Subject: we can't say, for example, **Ill is him*. The annotation applies, therefore, to the great majority of Objects but only to a minority of traditional Complements, yet it is presented as providing a criterion for identifying the traditional Complement. (I return to the potential Subject criterion in discussing the glossary entry in [37] below.)

[8] 1:36R

2. nouns are independent, and take as dependents:
 - ARTICLES, DETERMINERS and possessives, e.g., *The small boy; That small boy; His lunch.*

This implies that articles are distinct from determiners, whereas they are in fact included in the determiner class: see [24] below. 'Determiners' should be replaced by 'demonstratives'.

[9] 1:36R

1. adjectives appear as:
 - HEAD WORDS IN PHRASES that express attributes or qualities, e.g., *He was very hungry*.
 - MODIFIERS of a noun, e.g., *a large blue LUNCH box*
2. adjectives are dependent on nouns, and MAY TAKE DEPENDENTS such as degree adverbs, e.g., *a very large lunch box ...*
6. adjectives have five sub-classes: ...
 - classifiers or classifying adjectives, e.g., *PORCELAIN figurine, Australian, SCHOOL yard.*

There are three points to make here.

(a) The claim that adjectives head PHRASES is inconsistent with the rest of the article and with functional grammar. Functional grammar distinguishes at the word group/phrase rank between groups, which have Heads, and phrases, which don't, and it recognises only one class of phrase: the preposition phrase. The Coalface Grammar endorses this restriction of the term 'phrase' to preposition phrases on p. 42L:

Note that in this document [*English in Years 1 to 10 English Syllabus materials: a guide to teaching in English* (1994: 54-56)] the term 'phrase' is used to describe two levels of structure – word group and phrase. It is more helpful to use 'phrase' only for preposition phrases.

Thus for functional grammar the underlined expression in *He was very hungry* is a group, not a phrase. It should be noted that the quotation does not name the class of phrases that are alleged to be headed by adjectives, and this correlates with the fact that the rest of the Coalface Grammar does not introduce any phrase or group category with an adjective as Head: it doesn't provide any description at all for expressions like *very hungry*: see [32] below.

(b) There is inconsistency in the treatment of the two main functions of adjectives, dealt with in §1 of the quotation. In the first case, involving a Complement in clause structure (although that is not actually stated), the adjective is said to be Head of a phrase, and it is the phrase that functions as Complement. In the second case, involving modification of a noun, the adjective itself (thus a word, not a phrase) functions as Modifier. Why are the two cases handled differently? In the first case, we clearly need an intermediate unit because the adjective is expanded by the adverb *very*: it is the so-called phrase *very hungry* that functions as Complement. In the examples given for the second case the adjectives are not expanded in this way and so can apparently function immediately in the structure of the noun group. But that is simply a feature of the examples chosen. Adjectives modifying a noun can be expanded by a degree adverb just as those within the Complement can be: this indeed is shown in §2 of the quotation.

What then is the analysis of *very large* in *a very large lunch box*? It is clearly not a word, so if *very hungry* is a phrase (or word group) in *He was very hungry*, then *very large* should surely be a phrase (or word group) in *a very large lunch box*. But it would then be a case of rankshift, for the phrase (or word group) would be functioning in the structure of a unit of the same rank (a noun group), not the next higher rank (clause). The strategy of avoiding the issue

by choosing unmodified adjectives for the example of the second function in §1 is probably motivated by the fact that the account of rank given earlier does not allow for rankshift, but I have shown that that account is indefensible and inconsistent with the use of rankshift in analyses introduced in Part 2 (see [2] above). There is thus no valid basis within the Coalface Grammar framework for treating the two functions in §1 differently: both can be filled by a unit with an adjective as Head and an adverb as Modifier, hence by a unit of the rank next higher than the word.⁶

(c) *Lunch* in §1 and *porcelain* and *school* in §6 are not adjectives: they are nouns. It is a mistake, a serious one in a work claiming to adopt a functional perspective, to assume that all words modifying a noun are adjectives. The mistake results from the failure to distinguish properly between functional grammar's FUNCTIONS and CLASSES (see my §Ib above). Thus *lunch* has broadly the same function in this example as *large* and *blue*, namely Modifier, but it is a different kind of word, i.e. belongs to a different word class, noun not adjective. More specifically, functional grammar distinguishes between the functions Epithet (*large* and *blue*) and Classifier (*lunch*, *porcelain*, *school*) and explicitly says that the latter function can be filled by nouns or adjectives (IFG:320). Note that the Coalface Grammar uses 'classifier' in §6 of the quotation – but to name a subclass of adjective, not a function.

There are two main reasons why we need to allow for nouns as well as adjectives to modify the Head noun. In the first place, the Modifier can itself be modified, and nouns take different kinds of Modifier than adjectives. Compare, for example, *a high quality product* and *a highly efficient organisation*. *Quality* is a noun and is modified by the ADJECTIVE *high* whereas *efficient* is an adjective and is modified by the ADVERB *highly*. Secondly, any common or proper noun can occur in the Modifier function, given an appropriate Head noun (cf. *the unemployment situation*, *student morale*, *the Rudd government*, and so on). Thus if we didn't allow for nouns to function as Modifier, ALL words classified as nouns would also have to be classified as adjectives.

[10] 1:36R

3. adjectives inflect for grade or degree by
 - using gradient morphemes (*er*, *est*) to contrast absolute, comparative and superlative forms, e.g., *large / larger / largest box*
 - marking contrasts with GRADING ADJECTIVES, *MORE* and *MOST*, e.g., *swollen, more swollen, most swollen*

There are two errors here.

(a) This statement is inconsistent with the definition of inflection given on p. 36L: 'whether 'bound' grammatical morphemes* are used to express grammatical contrasts such as singular/plural, ...' (see [6] above). This covers the first bullet point in the quotation, but not the second. *More* and *most* are not bound morphemes but separate words. Inflection has to do with variation in the form of words, and *more swollen* is not a word.

⁶ I should add that functional grammar does not in fact treat *very large* in *a very large lunch box* as involving rankshift: it analyses *very large* as a word complex, not a unit at the word group/phrase rank. Functional grammar has a more elaborate theory of rank than is presented in the Coalface Grammar: just four ranks, morpheme, word, group/phrase and clause, but associated with each is a 'complex': morpheme complex, word complex, group/phrase complex and clause complex. the Coalface Grammar has simplified functional grammar's rank theory by omitting three of the four complexes, but this means that there will be a larger role to be played by rankshift.

(b) *More* and *most*, as used here, are not adjectives but adverbs. This error is one of the four that were acknowledged in the March 2008 issue of *Words'Worth*.

[11] 1:37L

6. ADJECTIVES have five sub-classes:
 - numeratives or quantity adjectives, e.g., *second*, *ten*, *A PAIR*.

A pair is not an adjective: it is a noun group. This is one of the most remarkable errors in the Coalface Grammar. There are several points to be made about its classification here as an adjective.

(a) This classification is inconsistent with what has been said earlier about rank. The adjective has been presented as a word class (the heading for the general section in which quotation [11] appears is `Words'), but we were told in [2] that `elements of each rank combine to form the next highest rank', so the combination of the words *a* and *pair* should be a word group or phrase, not another word.

(b) The classification of *a pair* as an adjective is incontestably unorthodox, yet there is no comment on its inclusion in a list of adjectives, no explanation as to why this expression should be treated differently from a noun group such as *a book*.

(c) There is compelling grammatical evidence that the combination of the determiner *a* and the noun *pair* yields a noun group behaving in obvious ways like *a book*. Thus it can function as Subject or Object in clause structure or Complement of a preposition, functions that in general can't be filled by adjectives. Compare *A book isn't enough* and *A pair isn't enough* (Subject), *I bought a book* and *I bought a pair* (Object), *I'm looking for a book* and *I'm looking for a pair* (Complement of a preposition). Similarly we can replace *a* by other determiners (*this book* and *this pair*), add an adjective as Modifier (*a new book* and *a new pair*), or, with appropriate change of determiner replace the singular Head noun *pair* by a plural (*the books* and *the pairs*).

(d) This error was acknowledged in the September 2008 issue of *Words'Worth*, but the amendment replaces *a pair* in the list of quantity adjectives by *pair of* or *a pair of*. No explanation is given for the error or for the revision. This revision, moreover, merely replaces one major error by another: *pair of* is no more an adjective than is *a pair*. The original articles have *set of* as an adjective: the discussion of this error in [46] below applies, mutatis mutandis, to *pair of* and need not be repeated here.

[12] 1:37L

Verbs ...

1. lexical (semantic) or main verbs appear as HEAD words in verb groups.

This is in conflict with functional grammar: in *has eaten*, for example, the Head is not the lexical verb *eat*, or *eaten*, but the present tense component of *has* (cf. *IFG:337* – `The primary tense is that functioning as Head').

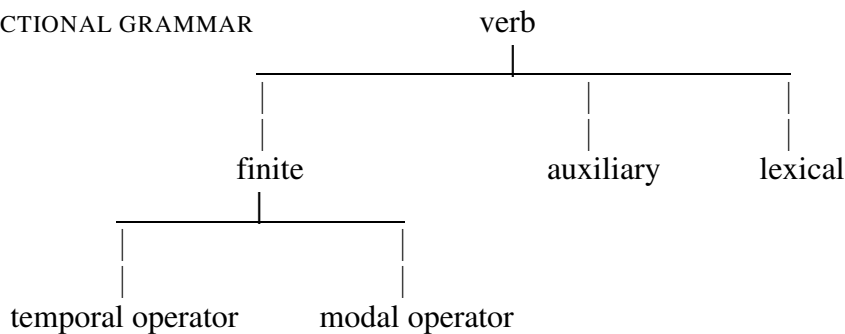
[13] 1:37L

2. lexical (semantic) or main verbs are independent, and take as dependents:
 - finite* verbs that interact with the subject in the clause ... Finite verbs may

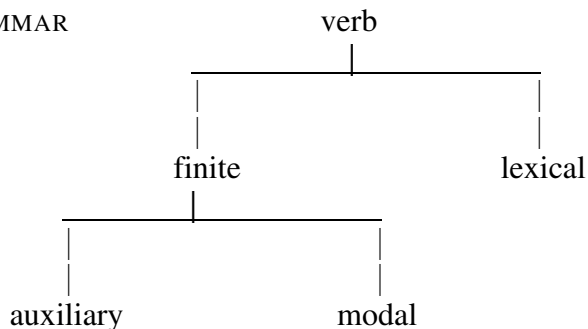
be AUXILIARY VERBS that signal tense, or MODAL VERBS that signal the author's opinion e.g., *The small boy is eating his lunch* (present tense) ... *The small boy could have eaten his lunch* (modal finite signalling the author's opinion of probability).

This passage misrepresents the functional grammar classification and is inconsistent with the correct account quoted in [5] above and given also in Part 2 (p. 50R), where three subclasses of verb are distinguished: finite, auxiliary and lexical (cf. *IFG:52*). Finite verbs (called, more fully, finite verbal operators) are further subdivided in functional grammar into temporal verbal operators and modal verbal operators (*IFG:116*). The Coalface Grammar, by contrast, has just two subclasses of verb, finite and lexical, with finite verbs further subclassified into auxiliary verbs and modal verbs. The two taxonomies are thus as follows:

FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR



COALFACE GRAMMAR



The Coalface analysis is incorrect because it does not account for verb groups containing more than two verbs. Thus, it doesn't provide a classification for the underlined verb in such verb groups as *has been working*, *may have finished*, *will have been seen*. These verbs are neither finite nor lexical. They belong in functional grammar's auxiliary class, but the Coalface Grammar has auxiliary as a subclass of finite verbs, not a subclass of verbs distinct from finite and lexical verbs.

Notice, moreover, that the underlining in the last example in [13], '*The small boy could have eaten his lunch*', is incorrect: the modal verb is *could*, not *could have*. This error may be related to the point just made, that the Coalface taxonomy has no separate class for *have* in this use.

[14] 1:37L–R

2. lexical (semantic) or main verbs are independent, and take as dependents: ...
 - ADVERBS that signal the author's opinion about the 'action', 'process', or 'state', e.g., *The small boy always ate his lunch*; *The small boy probably*

ate his lunch. The small boy WON'T eat his lunch. It probably is the boy's lunch. The small boy is CAPABLE OF eating his lunch.

This is another major part-of-speech error. *Won't* and *capable of* are not remotely like adverbs; *won't* is a verb, while *capable of* is not a word but a sequence of adjective + preposition. It is not necessary to provide evidence to demonstrate this, since the error is acknowledged in the March 2008 *Words'Worth*.

[15] 1:37R

4. VERBS ARE FORMED USING: ...

- empty verbs followed by a noun where the noun carries the lexical information, e.g., *did a jig, have a peep, took his leave*

The three cited expressions are not verbs: they consist of a verb followed by a noun group functioning as its Complement. The Coalface Grammar's analysis cannot be defended on the grounds that it takes a functional perspective: it doesn't. Functional grammar's analysis is presented in *IFG*:193–4, with examples including *do some work, have a bath, take a rest*. They are analysed with the lexically 'empty' verb as Process and the nominal group as Scope, and the point is made that the construction allows for modification of the noun, as in *have a hot bath*, for example. Such modification is incompatible with an analysis of the whole expression as a verb: you can't add an adjective as Modifier to part of a verb.

[16] 1:37R

6. verbs have three five [sic] sub-classes: ...

- infinitive verbs that do not inflect, ... and usually has [sic] the form *to* followed by the LEXICAL FORM of the verb, e.g., *to eat, to reflect, to be, to generate. The small boy went home to eat his lunch.*

The terminology here is inconsistent with that used in §3 on the same page, where the verb-form in question (i.e. *eat, reflect, be, generate*) is called the 'base form'. This use of 'lexical', moreover, conflicts with its use for a SUBCLASS of verbs, not an INFLECTIONAL FORM of a verb (see [13] above).

[17] 1:38L

Adverbs ...

1. adverbs appear as head word in ADVERB PHRASES, e.g., *(He raced) too quickly*.

This is inconsistent with what is said on p. 40, where expressions with an adverb as Head are called 'adverbial groups', the term used in functional grammar; see also [30].

[18] 1:38L

2. adverbs:

- may be dependent on verbs, some adjectives, other adverbs, whole sentences, e.g., ...
 - as modifiers of a sentence, e.g., *ACCORDING TO HIM, his lunch was enjoyable.*
- take as dependents:
 - degree adverbs as graders, e.g., *quite, too*
 - post-modifying ADVERB GROUPS of comparison, e.g., *(He raced) terrifyingly*

- *quickly as his father predicted.*
- post-modifying ADVERB PHRASES of comparison, e.g., *(He raced) terrifyingly quickly as usual.*

There are three errors here.

(a) *According to him* is not an adverb: it is a preposition phrase.

(b) The term 'adverb group' is not defined or used elsewhere in the article, but is presumably a variant of 'adverbial group', introduced on p. 40R as a group with an adverb as Head. But *as his father predicted* does not have an adverb as head. Within the framework of functional grammar and of this article, it is not a group at all, but a subordinate/dependent clause.

(c) *As usual* is not an adverb phrase as the term is used at the beginning of the section on adverbs (see [17] above): it does not have an adverb as Head, *as* being a conjunction and *usual* an adjective. Note, moreover, that although a contrast is drawn between an adverb group of comparison and an adverb phrase of comparison, no attempt is made to explain the intended difference between these two categories, or to relate it to functional grammar's general distinction between groups (which have Heads) and phrases (which don't).

[19] 1:38

3. ADVERBS DO NOT INFLECT

This is both false and inconsistent with what has been said earlier:

(a) It is false in that there are a number of common adverbs that inflect for grade, like adjectives: *early, fast, hard, late, long, soon*. The first five of these belong in fact to both adjective and adverb classes: compare the inflected forms in *This problem is harder than that* (adjective) and *She works harder than her brother* (adverb). Note that even if it were felt that there was not enough room to mention these items the statement should at least be qualified, e.g. 'adverbs do not in general inflect'. There is no justification for making an unqualified statement that is so obviously false.

(b) The inconsistency is with the statement, discussed in [10] above, that adjectives may inflect for grade by means of *more* and *most*: I argued that *more swollen* is not in fact an inflected adjective, but since the Coalface Grammar says it is, consistency requires that *more quickly* and the like be analysed as inflected adverbs, making the statement that adverbs do not inflect even more clearly untenable.

[20] 1:38L

5. adverbs express a range of meanings, such as ... accompaniment (*alone, BY HIMSELF*).

By himself is not an adverb: it is a preposition phrase (cf. [18] above, point (a)).

[21] 1:38L

6. ADVERBS HAVE SIX MAIN SUB-CLASSES:

- adverbs and ADVERBIAL PHRASES that provide circumstantial information, e.g., *He ate his lunch under the tree.*

It doesn't make sense to say that an ADVERBIAL PHRASE may belong to a sub-class of ADVERBS. Presumably what was meant was that adverbs, and adverbial phrases, can both be divided into six sub-classes, those that provide circumstantial information, and so on. Note, moreover, that 'adverbial phrase' does not have the sense of 'adverb phrase' introduced at the beginning of the section on adverbs (cf. [17] above, [30] below): *under the tree* is a preposition phrase functioning as Adjunct in clause structure.

[22] 1:38R

2. pronouns ... do not take as dependents:
 - determiners such as articles, e.g. *a, the, some*, and DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES, e.g., *this, that, those*, or possessives, e.g., *my, our*

The classification of demonstrative *this, that*, etc. as adjectives is inconsistent with their inclusion in the determiner category on the next page (see [24]).

[23] 1:38R

3. PRONOUNS DO NOT INFLECT.

This is false: a good number of pronouns inflect for case. It is stated in §6 on the same page that 'personal pronouns have case' and 'relative pronouns have case forms', while case is recognised as an inflectional category in the section on nouns – 'nouns inflect for ... case' (p. 36R). Note also that the indefinite pronouns *anybody, nobody*, etc. listed in §6 have the same inflectional contrast between common and possessive forms as nouns (e.g. *boy* vs *boy's* and *anybody* vs *anybody's*).

[24] 1:39L

DETERMINERS, including ARTICLES AND DEMONSTRATIVES

Articles and demonstratives answer the questions *Which one?* ...

6. determiners (articles and demonstratives) have no sub-classes.

The determiner class can't be restricted to articles and demonstratives: these make up less than half functional grammar's class, which also includes such common words as *each, every, neither, either, one, both, all, no*. In the earlier section on pronouns *everybody* and *nothing* are mentioned as compounds which contain a determiner as an 'infused component', but *every* and *no* are not catered for in the section on determiners.

It is true that 'include', used in the heading, does not entail that what follows is an exhaustive list, but it is used in that way in quotation [5] above and there are two indications that it is intended in that sense in the present quotation. In the first place, for all the other parts of speech the first line of the entry is of the form 'X answers the question ...', where 'X' refers to a part of speech – e.g. 'A noun answers the question *Who?* or *What?*' (p. 36L); in [24], therefore, 'Articles and demonstratives' in line 2 will be interpreted as equivalent to 'Determiners'. Secondly, in §6, quoted in [24] as line 3, the parenthesised 'articles and demonstratives' is in apposition to 'determiners' and hence serves to define the latter term.

[25] 1:39L

1. DETERMINERS APPEAR AS DETERMINING ADJECTIVES in noun groups, e.g., *an exciting book, the new book, those useful books*

This is incoherent, in conflict with the fundamental principle that the parts of speech are mutually exclusive, in the sense that no unambiguous occurrence of a word can belong to more than one part of speech. The underlined words in the quotation are determiners and therefore cannot be adjectives. This error illustrates particularly clearly the Coalface Grammar's failure to apply functional grammar's distinction between FUNCTIONS and CLASSES, discussed in my §1b. In the entries for the other parts of speech the first subsection consists of, or contains, a statement of the general form 'X appear as Y ...', where X is a class term and Y a function term – e.g. 'NOUNS appear as HEAD WORDS in noun groups that function as ...'. We may assume, therefore, that [25] is intended to state the function of determiners, but 'adjective' is the name of a CLASS, not a FUNCTION.

One reason why it is important to distinguish carefully between function and class is that they do not stand in a one-to-one relation. In the present case, the function of the underlined words in [25] is called 'Deictic' in functional grammar, but this function is not always filled by a determiner: it can also be filled by a rankshifted nominal group, as in *the boss's behaviour*, where *the boss's* is a nominal group functioning as Deictic to *behaviour*. I return to this point in [60] below.

[26] 1:39L

2. DETERMINERS ARE DEPENDENT ON NOUNS OR PRONOUNS serving as head words in noun groups

This is inconsistent with the statement cited in [22] above that 'pronouns ... do not take as dependents determiners such as articles ... and demonstrative adjectives', with the understanding that 'demonstrative adjectives' is a mistake for 'demonstratives'.

[27] 1:39L

4. ... In plural forms, *THE* and *some* are used for INDEFINITE descriptions although it [sic] may be omitted, and *the* is also used for definite descriptions, e.g., *the books fell from the shelves*, *some books fell from the shelves*, *books fell from the shelves*; *the books we want fell from the shelves*.

This is simply false: *the* is the definite article and marks the noun group as DEFINITE. There is no difference with respect to definiteness between *the books fell from the shelves* and *the books we want fell from the shelves* (both definite), just as there is none between *some books fell from the shelves* and *some books we want fell from the shelves* (both indefinite). Definiteness is marked by the determiner, not by the form of what follows. Plurals are no different from singulars in this respect. *The* indicates that the referent, whether an individual item (singular) or a set (plural), is assumed to be identifiable in the context: the speaker assumes that the addressee knows which books are being referred to.

I don't know where this idea came from. It differs from the account found in standard textbooks, and also from that found in functional grammar (cf. *IFG*:314). The fact that the singular pronoun *it* is used in the quotation with plural *the* and *some* as antecedent suggests that *the* may have been added here in some hasty and ill-considered revision.

[28] 1:39R

1. prepositions appear ... as HEAD WORDS IN PREPOSITION PHRASES

This is inconsistent with the statement (based on functional grammar and found in close proximity) that preposition phrases have 'no head word' (p. 40L).

[29] 1:39R–40L

1. CONJUNCTIONS appear as: ...
 - links between grammatical units of unequal status, e.g., between independent and dependent clauses (*They ran because they were afraid; They saw WHAT lay before them; The explorer WHO saw the carnage ahead ran in fear*)

Another part-of-speech error: *what* and *who* are pronouns, not conjunctions. They function as Head of the Subject nominal group at the beginning of the dependent clause. The March 2008 *Words'Worth* acknowledges that *who* is incorrectly classified as a conjunction, but fails to note that the same applies to *what*.

[30] 1:40L

`Phrases

... A preposition phrase serves either AN ADVERBIAL OR AN ADJECTIVAL FUNCTION. When it serves an adverbial function it provides circumstantial information about the action carried in the verb, e.g., *The small boy ate his lunch hurriedly under the tree*. *Under the tree* – preposition phrase explaining 'ate where'. When it serves an adjectival function, it qualifies the head word in a noun group, e.g., *The small boy under the tree ate his lunch* *Under the tree* – post-modifying ADJECTIVE PHRASE explaining 'which boy'.

This passage uses the term 'adjective phrase' for 'a preposition phrase with an adjectival function'; elsewhere, 'adverbial phrase' is used for one 'with an adverbial function' (e.g. [21])

This is a further case where extensive confusion arises through the failure to apply functional grammar's distinction between FUNCTIONS and CLASSES. Adverb and adjective are the names of classes, not functions. As is evident from the entries for adverb and adjective in the section on word classes, both adjectives and adverbs occur in a variety of functions, so the account given in [30] is too restrictive. In *The small boy ate his lunch hurriedly under the tree* the underlined phrase is Adjunct in clause structure, but in *It was dangerous in the extreme* it is Qualifier of the adjective *dangerous*, and in *Fortunately for me, no one noticed* it is Qualifier of an adverb. Similarly, in *The small boy under the tree ate his lunch* it is Qualifier of the noun *boy*, but in *The boy was in the garden* it is a Complement. Labelling a preposition phrase as adjectival or adverbial is thus a very inadequate way of describing its function and quite inappropriate in a work claiming to adopt a functional perspective.

There is a huge amount of inconsistency in the use of the terms 'adverb', 'adverb(ial) group' and 'adverb(ial) phrase' in the Coalface Grammar:

(a) ADVERB is used for:

1. a word of the adverb class, such as *hurriedly*
2. a preposition phrase functioning as Adjunct (e.g. *by himself* in [20]).

(b) ADVERB GROUP and ADVERBIAL GROUP are used for:

1. a group headed by an adverb, such as *hurriedly* or *very hurriedly*;
2. an expression functioning as Circumstance in clause structure and having the form of an adverb(ial) group in sense 1 or a preposition phrase (2:50–51)
3. 'post-modifying adverb groups of comparison, e.g., (*He raced*) *terrifyingly quickly* as

his father predicted' (see [18] above).

(c) ADVERB PHRASE and ADVERBIAL PHRASE

1. a group headed by an adverb, such as *too quickly* (e.g. [17])
2. a preposition phrase with a function like that of an adverb(ial) group in sense 1 (e.g. [21])
3. `post-modifying adverb phrases of comparison, e.g., (*He raced*) *terrifyingly quickly as usual'* (see [18] above).

It is evident that the Coalface Grammar does not present a coherent set of class and function categories with associated terminology systematically applied.

[31] 1:40L

Word groups comprise a head word and, optionally, one or more dependent words that elaborate the meaning expressed in the head word.

This is not true: word groups often contain rankshifted clauses, phrases or groups as Dependent: *the man who came to dinner* (clause), *the father of the bride* (phrase), *a guy my age* (group). This serious error stems from the failure to recognise the phenomenon of rankshift in the presentation of rank theory: see [2] above.

[32] 1:40R

`A **noun group** comprises a NOUN (or pronoun) and optional dependent words ...

A **verb group** comprises ...

An **adverbial group** comprises ...

A **conjunction group** comprises ...

A **preposition group** comprises ...

Within the framework of the Coalface Grammar it is a serious error not to include an adjectival group in the list of word group classes. It is true that functional grammar doesn't have an adjectival group either, but that is because expressions like those underlined in *He was very hungry* or *That seems unlikely* are analysed as nominal groups. As noted in [5], adjectives are a sub-class of nominals, and they, like nouns, can function as Head of a nominal group (as indeed can other nominals: cf. *IFG:331*). The Coalface Grammar, however, does not follow functional grammar here: it only allows for nouns (or pronouns) to function as Head in noun group structure, as we see in [32]. Thus, for the Coalface Grammar, *very hungry* and *unlikely* above cannot be noun groups. Notice, moreover, that in Part 2 (p. 50L) it is said that `Participants are realised by noun groups or by adjectives expressing attributes', which implies that adjectival expressions functioning as Attribute (like *very hungry* and *unlikely* above) are not noun groups, as they are in functional grammar. This departure from functional grammar's treatment of such expressions needs to be compensated for by recognising a class of adjectival group. As things stand, readers are left with no analysis at the rank of word group for expressions with an adjective as Head.

[33] 1:40R

A **conjunction group** comprises structural elements (words) that have fused through evolution to function as a single connective unit, e.g., *in case*, *insofar as*, *by the time*, *even if*. These groups may contain modifiers, e.g., *just as soon as*.

This is a serious misrepresentation of functional grammar's concept of conjunction group. It is instructive to compare it with the following passage from *IFG*:358–9:

Conjunctions also form word groups by modification, for example *even if, just as, not until, if only*. ... Note however that many conjunctive expressions have evolved from more complex structures, e.g. *as soon as, in case, by the time, nevertheless, insofar as*. These can be treated as single elements without further analysis. They are themselves, of course, subject to modification, e.g. *just in case, almost as soon as*.

It is clear from the choice of examples that the Coalface Grammar account draws on this passage, but it has been misunderstood. Functional grammar makes a distinction (signalled as such by 'Note however') between conjunction groups and 'conjunctive expressions [that] have evolved from more complex structures, e.g. *as soon as, in case, by the time, nevertheless, insofar as* [which] can be treated as single elements without further analysis'. These expressions are not themselves conjunction groups; it is only when they are modified, as in *just in case*, that we have a conjunction group. The Coalface Grammar has missed this distinction and incorrectly treats functional grammar's complex conjunctions, like *in case, insofar as*, as conjunction groups. Of the five examples in [33] only the last two qualify as conjunction groups in functional grammar.

[34] 1:40R

A *preposition group* comprises a preposition as head word, e.g., *for the sake of*, and may take a preceding modifier, e.g., *almost in front of, way off*.

Again this misrepresents functional grammar, in almost but not quite the same way as with conjunction group. The corresponding passage from *IFG*:359 is as follows:

Prepositions ... form groups by modification, in the same way as conjunctions; e.g. *right behind, not without, all along, way off* as in *right behind the door, not without some misgivings, all along the beach, way off the mark*.

Again there are more complex forms, such as *in front of, for the sake of*, which can be left unanalysed. These are also subject to modification, as in *just for the sake of, immediately in front of*. ... A PREPOSITION GROUP, such as *right behind* or *immediately in front of*, ... is a Modifier–Head structure expanded from and functionally equivalent to a preposition

Note, then, that *for the sake of*, which the Coalface Grammar gives as an example of a preposition group, is not a preposition group for functional grammar, and doesn't have a preposition as Head word: it is a 'complex preposition' not subject to further analysis. Again, then, the Coalface Grammar fails to see the distinction between a group and a complex word-rank unit not subject to further analysis.

For functional grammar conjunction groups and preposition groups differ from nominal groups, verbal groups and adverbial groups in that they ALWAYS have a Modifier–Head structure. Whereas a nominal, verbal or adverbial group may consist of a Head alone, a conjunction group or preposition group cannot. Again, the Coalface Grammar misses this distinction and incorrectly treats the Modifier in a preposition group as optional ('MAY take a preceding modifier').

One further point to make is that preposition groups are inconsistent with the account of rank given in [2] above: they do not function in the structure of the next higher rank, the clause, but in the structure of another unit of the same rank, a preposition phrase, and hence they are rankshifted.

[35] 1:40R

Clauses ... comprise one verb group and one or more OPTIONAL NOUN OR ADVERBIAL GROUPS,

This is too restrictive. It fails to allow for Attributes like that in *He was hungry*, given that, for the Coalface Grammar, these are not noun groups (see [32] above). And if adverbial group is understood in the same way as verb and noun groups, i.e. as a group headed by an adverb, which is how it is defined on the same page as quotation [35], then it fails to allow for preposition phrases functioning as Adjunct (*The small boy sat under the tree*).

[36] 1:41L

It should be noted that some structures are DOWN-RANKED when a writer wishes to de-emphasise some aspect of information included in a text. For example, circumstantial information is de-emphasised in *Playing together yesterday / they tore their clothes*. The non-finite* clause, *playing together yesterday* HAS BEEN DOWN-RANKED FROM THE FULL OR FINITE CLAUSE, *When they played together yesterday*.

This is a misrepresentation of functional grammar's concept of downranking, another term for rankshift, discussed in [2] above. It is defined in functional grammar as follows: '**rank shift**, whereby a unit of one rank may be downranked (downgraded) to function in the structure of a unit of its own rank or of a rank below' (*IFG*:9–10). An example might be *The children who were playing together yesterday did a great deal of damage*. The underlined expression is rankshifted or downranked in that it is a clause functioning not in the structure of the rank above clause, the clause complex, but in the structure of a unit of a lower rank, a group (the nominal group *the children who were playing together yesterday*). The Coalface Grammar's example has nothing to do with downranking in this sense: [36] is concerned not with the place of *playing together yesterday* in the structure containing it, but with the relation between this clause and another that could replace it. *Playing together yesterday* in the example cited is not downranked in functional grammar's sense since it is functioning in the structure of the rank above, the clause complex.

I would add that the account of downranking in [36] is inconsistent with the way the term is used in Part 2 (p. 53L): see [58].

[37] 1:41L–R

complement A COMPLEMENT IS A NOUN GROUP that is dependent on a verb group. For example, in *Ms Jago is the teacher*, the noun group, *the teacher*, is a complement that depends on the relational verb, *is*. In *Sam gave the lunch to Jodi*, the noun group, *the lunch*, is a complement that depends upon the action verb, *gave*. One test for a complement is that it has the potential to be the subject of the verb, and therefore the DOER OF THE ACTION. In the first example, above, the subject and the complement describe the same identity, so the clause can be rearranged without changing the grammatical structure or the meaning. *The teacher is Ms Jago*. In the second example, the doer of the action, *Sam*, is the subject of the verb, *gave*. The complement, *the lunch*, can become the subject of the verb only with a rearranging of the grammatical structure. This rearrangement will cause the clause to take what is called a passive form. It then becomes, *The lunch was given to Jodi by Sam*.

There are three errors to note here.

(a) In the first place, it is a mistake, within the Coalface Grammar framework, to restrict Complements to noun groups. Recall that the Coalface Grammar does not follow functional grammar in analysing expressions like those underlined in *He was very hungry* and *That seemed unlikely* as noun groups, yet these are Complements in both functional grammar and traditional grammar. As we saw in the discussion of [32] above, a category of adjectival group is needed – and the glossary entry for Complement needs to allow for a Complement to have the form of a noun OR ADJECTIVAL group.

(b) Secondly, the glossary definition of Complement seriously misrepresents functional grammar in that it fails to note that the 'potential Subject' test does not work for Complements that are Attributes, like those in *She was tired*, *They became friends*, *It seemed a good idea at the time*, *This made me angry*, *He considered it an outrage*. In functional grammar Attributes are very clearly presented as exceptions to the general principle:

‘A Complement is an element within the Residue that has the potential of being Subject but is not. ...

There is one exception to this general principle: that is the attributive Complement, as in *King Arthur was a noble king*, or *its fleece was white as snow*.’ (IFG, 1st edn: 79)

The failure to mention this exception could not be justified as a simplification needed in a short overview: the attributive constructions are very common, and if students are to work with the concept of Complement in textual analysis they need to know that it applies not only to elements that satisfy the 'potential Subject' test, but also to Attributes.

The entry cites an example containing the verb *be* in a sense where the test is satisfied (*Ms Jago is the teacher* ~ *The teacher is Ms Jago*), but in the absence of further explanation this risks confusing students, for in a high proportion of cases clauses with *be* fail the test. A distinction has to be made between two constructions with the verb *be*: on the one hand we have those where the Complement is an Attribute and the potential Subject test doesn't work, as in the two examples quoted from IFG above, and on the other we have those like *Ms Jago is the teacher*, where the test does work and the clause expresses identification, not attribution of a property. The Coalface Grammar introduces this distinction in the glossary entry for transitive verb, but it should be dealt with here in the entry for Complement, for its chief grammatical relevance is to the potential Subject test for Complement (see, further, [40] below).

(c) Thirdly, it is a serious error to say that if an element is Subject it is 'therefore the DOER OF THE ACTION'. It is in fact shown to be false by examples presented in this glossary entry itself: *Sam gave the lunch to Jodi* and *The lunch was given to Jodi by Sam*. These two clauses, active and passive respectively, describe the same action, one in which the 'doer of the action' is Sam. But it is only in the first clause that *Sam* is Subject: in the second *the lunch* is Subject, while *Sam* is Complement of the preposition *by*. Thus when we rearrange ('passivise') the clause so that the Complement becomes Subject, the Subject CEASES to be the doer. Moreover, in the first pair of examples, *Ms Jago is the teacher* and *The teacher is Ms Jago*, the verb *be* expresses a relation of identity, which is not an action: in neither example, therefore, is the Subject 'the doer of the action'. I return to the characterisation of the Subject in [39] below.

[38] 1:41R

finite verbs Finite verbs are any form of a verb inflected for grammatical features such as number ..., person ..., and tense (past, present, future). ... In (3) [= *The teacher will be Ms Jago*] *will* INFLECTS for singular number, third person, and FUTURE tense. ...

infinitive verb An infinitive verb is the most basic form of a verb. NO SUBJECT IS SPECIFIED, and no tense (past, present, future time) is expressed. The typical form is the preposition *to* followed by the LEXICAL FORM of the verb. ...

non-finite verb A non-finite verb is a form of a verb that HAS NO SPECIFIED SUBJECT and that does not inflect for number or person. These are often called either present participles that end in *ing* or past participles that usually end in *ed* or *en*.'

It is convenient to consider these three glossary entries together. There are several points to be made.

(a) The first point to note is that the concept of finite verb dealt with here is quite different from the one that was presented in the verb section and is developed further in Part 2. The glossary entry is concerned with finiteness as a matter of verb INFLECTION, which is how it is construed in traditional grammar. In functional grammar, however, finite verbs form a CLASS of verbs operating at a particular place in the structure of the clause, namely the Finite element within the 'Mood block' – see [13] above and [50]–[51] below. Functional grammar's finite verb class is relatively small (see *IFG*:116), and contrasts with the auxiliary verb and lexical verb classes.

It is not acceptable to use a single term now in the traditional sense and now in the functional grammar sense: this inevitably results in inconsistency. We have seen how this arises in the case of the Complement function (see [7]), and the same applies here. The set of forms that qualify as finite verbs by the glossary definition is vastly greater than the class of finite verbs presented in the verb section. Thus a verb like *went*, for example, is traditionally a finite verb, and qualifies as one by the glossary definition, but does not belong to the class of finite verbs that was earlier contrasted, as in functional grammar, with lexical verbs.

(b) For the remaining points I consider the glossary entries with respect to the view of finiteness as a matter of verb inflection. As noted in the discussion of [6], English has no future tense INFLECTION: if *will be* is correctly regarded as a future tense at all, as it is in functional grammar, it is marked as such by the separate word *will*, not by the form of the word *be* itself. Moreover it doesn't make any sense at all to say that *will* itself inflects for future tense: it is, for functional grammar, a temporal operator MARKING future tense.

(c) There is inconsistency within the glossary and between the glossary and the section on verb inflection. In the verb section, the Coalface Grammar distinguishes in terms of inflection between TENSED forms (present and past) and NON-TENSED forms (base, present participle and past participle). In the glossary it has the three-way distinction shown in [38]. Finite verbs match the tensed forms, except that the verb section has two tenses whereas here we have three. Instead of having an entry covering the three non-tensed forms, however, the glossary has separate entries for non-finite and infinitive verbs. Non-finite verb thus covers just the present and past participles, but it doesn't make sense to say that infinitives are neither finite nor non-finite, and nor does this match the way the term 'non-finite clause' is used – cf. 'a non-finite clause has a lexical verb, usually a present or past participle, or an infinitive verb', Part 2 (p. 52R). The entry for non-finite verbs says that they don't inflect for number or person, but fails to say that they don't inflect for tense; the entry for infinitive verbs says that they don't have tense, but fails to say that they don't inflect for number or person: in fact verbs other than finite ones don't inflect for tense, person or number. In addition, the infinitive verb entry repeats the mistake of using 'lexical form' instead of 'base form' (cf. [16] above).

(d) It is not true that infinitives and (other) non-finites cannot take a specified Subject: compare [*For you to give up now*] *would be a great pity*; *We objected to* [*her children being given special privileges*]; [*All things considered,*] *it was a reasonable success*, where bracketing

marks the non-finite clause and underlining its Subject. It could reasonably be argued that these constructions do not need to be mentioned in a short survey – but they should not be explicitly excluded. The obvious solution is to say simply that non-finites USUALLY have no specified Subject.

[39] 1:42L

subject in a clause The subject in a clause is a noun group denoting something about which an assertion is made. For example, in *Jamie ate his lunch*, an assertion is made about *Jamie*, so *Jamie* is the subject of the clause. In *His lunch was eaten by Jamie*, an assertion is made about *his lunch*, so *his lunch* is identified as the subject. The respective probes here are *Ate what?* and *What was eaten?*

This glossary definition is inconsistent with what was said about the Subject in the entry for Complement, quoted in [37] above, where the Subject is said to represent the 'doer of the action'. We saw in fact that this latter definition doesn't even hold for the passive example used in the Complement entry, and the present entry for Subject has another example of the same kind, *His lunch was eaten by Jamie*, where the Subject is identified as *his lunch*, and yet it is *Jamie* that represents the doer of the action.

More importantly, both characterisations of the Subject are completely at odds with functional grammar's approach. In analysing the clause, functional grammar distinguishes between three different dimensions of structure, spoken of in terms of the IDEATIONAL, INTERPERSONAL and TEXTUAL 'metafunctions'. Part 2 of the Coalface Grammar is primarily devoted to these three aspects of clause structure. In introducing these ideas, in the chapter of IFG called 'Towards a functional grammar', Halliday examined the traditional concept of Subject, noting that there were a number of different ways of looking at it, various different kinds of Subject, often distinguished as 'psychological Subject', 'grammatical Subject' and 'logical Subject'. In the simplest cases they coincide, as in *The duke gave my aunt this teapot*. But often they do not coincide: in *This teapot my aunt was given by the duke*, for example, the psychological Subject is *this teapot*, the grammatical Subject is *my aunt* and the logical Subject is *the duke*. Halliday sees them as belonging each to a different metafunction, textual, interpersonal and ideational respectively. And instead of using the term Subject for all three, he restricts it to the interpersonal metafunction, using 'Theme' instead of psychological Subject and 'Actor' instead of logical Subject.

The Coalface Grammar follows functional grammar's terminology, but the two characterisations of the interpersonal function Subject given in the glossary – 'doer of the action' in the Complement entry and 'something about which an assertion is made' in the Subject entry – do not apply to functional grammar's Subject: they do not apply at the interpersonal level.

'Doer of the action' corresponds to the ideational function of Actor. And there are two reasons why the Actor does not always coincide with the interpersonal function of Subject. In the first place, as we have noted, in passive clauses like *His lunch was eaten by Jamie* the Actor function is filled by *Jamie*, which is Complement of the preposition *by*, not Subject. Secondly, not all clauses express actions, and those that don't will not have an Actor function. Thus in the situation described by *Mary liked the gift* Mary is not 'doing' anything; functional grammar assigns to *Mary* the ideational function Senser (IFG:201), but it is nevertheless also Subject at the interpersonal level. Similarly in *Mice are timid creatures* the ideational function of *mice* is not Actor but Carrier – it carries the Attribute expressed in *timid creatures* (IFG:219) – yet again it is Subject at the interpersonal level. The Coalface Grammar introduces functional grammar's distinction between different ideational types with a sample of associated Participant roles, so the identification of the Subject with the doer of the action is not only wrong, it is inconsistent with the section 'Processes realised through verb groups' in Part 2 (50R–51L).

`Denoting something about which an assertion is made' is roughly equivalent to functional grammar's account of the meaning associated with the textual function Theme. As we have noted, in the simplest cases the Theme coincides with the Subject, but it can also precede the Subject, as in such examples as *Eliot you're particularly fond of* or *All this we owe both to ourselves and to the peoples of the world (IFG:74)*, where single underlining marks the Theme and double underlining marks the Subject. Here, then, the first example will be construed as being (primarily) about `Eliot', not `you', and the second as about `all this', not `we'.

Both of the Coalface Grammar's definitions of Subject thus fail to give the correct results in many cases, and both misrepresent functional grammar's position.

There's one further point to be made about [39] – an obvious error, though a relatively minor one. It says that the `probe' [for the Subject] in *Jamie ate his lunch* is *Ate what?* The latter is of course a probe for the Object: the probe for the Subject should be *Who ate?*

[40] 1:42L

transitive verb A transitive verb is one that TYPICALLY takes an object. For example, while *to eat* typically takes an object, it may not. In *Jamie ate his lunch*, the verb is functioning as a transitive verb. In *Jamie ate quickly*, there is no object although the writer could have chosen to include one – as in the previous clause. The probe here is *Ate what?*

An **intransitive verb** is one that TYPICALLY does not take an object. Examples: (1) *He woke*. (2) *The new car gleamed brightly*. (3) *The vegetables were ready for pulling*. In (3), *were* as an intransitive form of the verb, *to be*, is linking an attribute (ready for pulling) to the subject, *The vegetables*. OTHER USES OF THIS VERB INCLUDE A TRANSITIVE FUNCTION when it links an object and its identity, as in *The vegetables were the finest examples in the display*.

There are two errors here.

(a) It is a mistake to distinguish between transitive and intransitive verbs in terms of whether they TYPICALLY take an object. *Wake*, for example, occurs without an object in *He woke* and with an object in *He woke me*, but we don't have to decide which of these represents its typical use: it is intransitive in the first example, transitive in the second. The majority of verbs in English have both transitive and intransitive uses. In the above quotation *Jamie ate quickly* appears in the entry for transitive verb, but this example illustrates the INTRANSITIVE use of *eat*. Note that this entry is inconsistent with the account given in the verb section, where transitive verbs are defined as those that `take an object' and intransitives as those that don't (p. 37R).

(b) The entry entails that the underlined noun group in *The vegetables were the finest examples in the display* is an OBJECT, but neither traditional grammar nor functional grammar analyses it as such. In traditional grammar it is a Complement in the traditional sense of that term, which is distinct from Object. And, as we have seen ([7]), functional grammar does not have the function Object. In *Alice is kind* and *Alice is the one sitting on the right of the premier* (to take a clearer pair of examples) the underlined nominal groups are distinguished not on the interpersonal dimension (both are Complements) but on the ideational dimension (the first being Attribute and the second Identifier).

It will be noted that the Coalface Grammar gives no indication as to why *the finest examples in the display* should be analysed as an Object. The first part of the glossary entry for Object is effectively the same as that for Complement, except for the term being defined: `An object is a noun group that depends on the verb group' ~ `A complement is a noun group that is dependent on a verb group'. The second part of the Object entry is `It frequently identifies the object or goal of the action expressed by the verb', but that does not help because the verb *be*

does not express an action. The most salient grammatical difference between the attributive and identifying uses of *be* is that in the latter but not the former the Subject and the Complement can be switched. Thus we can have *The one sitting on the right of the premier* *is Alice*, with the underlined noun group now Subject, but *Alice is kind* has no counterpart in which *kind* is Subject. The appropriate place to deal with the contrast between these two uses of *be* is in the entry for Complement (since it has to do with whether the 'potential Subject' test is satisfied – cf. the discussion of [37]), not the entry for transitive verb (which distinguishes transitive and intransitive verbs in terms of Objects).

It is also confusing to talk of *were* in *The vegetables were ready for pulling* as an 'intransitive FORM of the verb'. We talk of 'forms of the verb' in the context of inflection: '*were* is a past tense form of the verb, *been* is the past participle form of the verb', and so on. The transitive/intransitive distinction is not a matter of inflection but of the syntactic construction. Nor is it appropriate to talk of 'a transitive function': transitive and intransitive are the names of CLASSES, not FUNCTIONS.

[41] 2:49L

As explained in *Grammar at the Coalface* in the previous issue of *Words'Worth*, all texts comprise basic structural elements ranging from MORPHEMES TO CLAUSES.

According to Part 1 of the Coalface Grammar, the basic structural elements range from morpheme to CLAUSE COMPLEX, not clause: see [1]. We have seen that the September 2008 *Words'Worth* acknowledged that it was an error to treat the clause as the largest unit in quotation [1], but there is no recognition that the same error occurs here.

[42] 2:49L

The structural basics underlie the importance, in TRADITIONAL SCHOOL GRAMMAR, of 'rules' such as:

- a main clause MUST HAVE A FINITE AND A LEXICAL VERB; these may be fused

There is no such rule in 'traditional school grammar': the rule cited is based on functional grammar. Moreover, it misrepresents functional grammar in that simple imperative clauses like *Close the door* have no finite verb (as is noted on p. 52L: see [51]), but such imperatives are nevertheless main clauses.

[43] 2:50L

PARTICIPANTS ARE REALISED by noun groups or BY ADJECTIVES expressing attributes, Processes by verb groups, and CIRCUMSTANCES BY ADVERBIAL GROUPS.

There are two points to make here.

(a) It is inconsistent with basic rank theory to have adjectives realising Participants. Adjectives are word-rank units, whereas Participants function in the structure of clauses. Except in the case of rankshift, items of one rank function in the structure of a unit of the next higher rank, and the next higher rank than the word is not the clause but the word group/phrase. This error relates to the Coalface Grammar's failure to establish a group category headed by adjectives: see [32].

(b) The interpretation of 'adverbial group' is inconsistent with that of 'noun group' and 'verb group': the latter two are groups headed by a noun and verb respectively, but adverbial group

cannot be intended as a group headed by an adverb, for Circumstances can be realised by preposition phrases. For fuller discussion of this issue, see [30]. What should have been said here is 'Circumstances by adverbial groups or preposition phrases' (but see [49] below).

[44] 2:50L

These functional components are identified in the following examples: ...

ii. *He gave the parcel to his brother at home.*

He [Who? Participant] *gave* [What action? Process] *TO HIS BROTHER* [Whom? PARTICIPANT] *at home* [Where? Circumstance]

This quotation immediately follows that in [43], being intended to provide exemplification of the general statement made there. But it is in fact inconsistent with that statement, for the Participant *to his brother* is a preposition phrase, not a noun group or adjective.

[45] 2:50R

A noun group has up to three major sections:

1. pre-modifying structures

(a) DETERMINERS

a. articles (*a, the, some* as in *the fit young adventurer*) Which?

b. demonstratives (*this, that, these, those* as in *that adventurer who reached the peak*) Which?

c. POSSESSIVE PRONOUN (*your, one's, her, his* as in *his coach*) Whose?

This is a particularly serious error. Determiner and pronoun are distinct parts of speech: a pronoun can't be a determiner. No unambiguous instance of a word can belong to two different parts of speech (see [25]). The inclusion of possessive pronouns in the determiner class is inconsistent with the account of determiners given in Part 1 (p. 39L), where the class covers just articles and demonstratives (see [24]). It is also inconsistent with what is said about pronouns in Part 1 (p. 38R), where they are said to appear as Head words in noun groups: in [45] *his* in *his coach* is treated as a Premodifier, not Head, in noun group structure.

There are two ways of avoiding this error. One is to say that *his* in *his coach* is A DETERMINER BUT NOT A PRONOUN; this in fact is what functional grammar does (IFG:314). The other (consistent with the general principles of functional grammar even if not the actual analysis adopted) is to say that it is A PRONOUN BUT NOT A DETERMINER. In this case the likeness between *his* and a determiner such as the article in *the coach* or the demonstrative in *this coach* will be not a matter of CLASS, but of FUNCTION. The pronoun will be Head of a nominal group which is rankshifted to operate in a larger nominal group with the same function as a determiner. In functional grammar this function is called Deictic, a term not mentioned in the Coalface Grammar.

This is another case, then, where the Coalface Grammar's failure to apply functional grammar's distinction between functions and classes leads to major error. Instead of handling the likeness between the possessive pronouns and articles/demonstratives by assigning them the same function, the Coalface Grammar puts them in the same class, which leads to the theoretically untenable situation where a word belongs simultaneously to two mutually contrasting classes, pronoun and determiner. We will see that things get even worse when possessive proper nouns like *Sam's* are brought into the picture: see [60] below.

[46] 2:50R

A noun group has up to three major sections:

1. pre-modifying structures ...

(b) ADJECTIVES

- a. numeratives or quantity adjectives (*two, several, many, SET OF* as in *many mountain peaks*) How many? How much?

Set of is not an adjective: it is a sequence of a noun and a preposition which do not combine to form a unit of any kind. This is a really shocking error, for several reasons.

(a) Like the classification of *a pair* as an adjective (see [11]), it is inconsistent with what was said at the outset about rank. The adjective has been presented as a word class, but we were told in [2] that 'elements of each rank combine to form the next highest rank', so the combination of the words *set* and *of*, if it formed a unit at all, should be a word group or phrase, not another word.

(b) The classification of *set of* as an adjective, again like that of *a pair*, is incontestably unorthodox, yet there is no comment on its inclusion in a list of adjectives, no explanation as to why this expression should be treated differently from, say, *light of* in *the waning light of day*, an example given a little lower down p. 50R, with *light* analysed as Head of the noun group and *of day* a preposition phrase qualifying the Head.

(c) To say that in the noun group *a set of bowls*, for example, *set of* is an adjective is to imply that *bowls* is Head of the noun group and *set of* a Modifier, yet there is overwhelming grammatical evidence that it is *set*, not *bowls*, that is Head. It is instructive to compare *a set of bowls* with *a national flag*, where *national* is indeed an adjective, one formed from the noun stem *nation* + the suffix *-al*, and where the Head is indisputably *flag*.

- i In the first place we can pluralise *set* to give, say, *two sets of bowls*, but we can't pluralise *nation* – you can't say *two nationals flag*. Thus *set* behaves syntactically like a noun but *nation* does not: it is a noun stem, but part of an adjective.
- ii Demonstrative determiners agree in number with the Head noun. Thus we have *this national flag* ~ *these national flags*, with *flag(s)* as Head, but *this set of bowls* ~ *these sets of bowls*, with *set(s)* as Head, not *bowls*.
- iii We can insert an adjective modifying *set*, as in *a large set of bowls*, where *large* gives the size of the set, not the size of the bowls – compare *a set of large bowls*, where this time it is the bowls that are large, not the set. With *national*, by contrast there is only one place for *large*, shown in *a large national flag*, where *large* gives the size of the flag, not the size of the nation.
- iv *Set of* can be followed by a determiner, as in *a set of these bowls*, but this is not possible with *national*: you can't say *a national this flag*. If *set of* were an adjective the structure of *a set of these bowls* would be determiner + adjective + determiner + noun or, in functional terms, Deictic + Numerative + Deictic + Thing, but this is not a possible nominal group structure. The fact that there are two Deictics indicates that there are two nominal groups, one embedded within the other. The embedded nominal group is *these bowls*, with *bowls* as Head, and the larger nominal group is *a set of these bowls*, with *set* as Head.
- v *Set* and *of* do not need to be adjacent, whereas *nation* and *-al* clearly do. Thus we could say *We ought to get a set or two of these attractive bowls*. *Of* can even precede *set*, as in *They had on display some Italian bowls, of which one set was quite exquisite*. There is no way of describing these structures coherently if *set* and *of* are claimed to form a unit belonging to the adjective class.

(d) It is important to emphasise that the classification of *set of* as an adjective cannot be

justified as resulting from taking a functional perspective. *IFG* does deal with the construction in question, illustrating with such examples as *a cup of tea*, *a pack of cards*, *a slice of cake*, and so on (*IFG*:332–4), but the analysis proposed is quite different from the Coalface Grammar's and lends no support to it whatsoever.

As with the clause, functional grammar assigns co-existing structures to the nominal group, an experiential structure and a logical structure. Functions in the experiential structure include Deictic, Numerative, Epithet, Classifier, Thing and Qualifier, while those in the logical structure are Head and Modifier. In general, Thing and Head coincide; in *young children*, for example, *young* is Epithet and Modifier, *children* Thing and Head. In the construction we are concerned with here, however, Thing and Head are separate. Thus in *a cup of tea* we have *tea* as Thing and *cup* as Head. In the experiential structure *a cup of* is a nominal group embedded to function as Numerative in the larger nominal group *a cup of tea*; within the embedded nominal group *a* is Deictic/Modifier, *cup* is Thing/Head, and *of* is a marker of the relation of the embedded nominal group to the one containing it. Generalising this analysis to *a set of bowls* we see that functional grammar takes *set* as Head, which accounts for the facts discussed in (c) above; *set of* is not an adjective, not a unit of any kind, while *a set of* is a rankshifted nominal group functioning as Numerative.

Now it could be argued that this dual structure analysis is too complex to merit inclusion in a short overview of English grammar for schoolteachers. I would certainly agree. But the answer to this is to simply avoid examples like *a set of bowls*, or else to describe them just in terms of the logical structure, with *set* as Head. It is quite indefensible to analyse *set of* as an adjective and the offence is compounded by presenting it without any justification or commentary.

[47] 2:50R

Processes realised through verb groups

The key functional component of an INDEPENDENT CLAUSE is the Process. In fact, if there is no FULL VERB, including a FINITE VERB, that can take a Subject, there is no independent clause.

Two points here:

(a) It is an error to say that you can't have an independent clause without a finite verb that can take a Subject. For functional grammar and for the Coalface Grammar, imperatives like *Close the door* have no finite verb, but they are nevertheless independent clauses (see [42]).

(b) There is no explanation of what is meant by a 'full verb'. The only other use of the term is in the 'Possible focussed learning episodes' in Part 1 (p. 43R), where it is said that there are six full verbs in a certain set of sentences, with a parenthesis saying '*to save* is an infinitive and not a complete verb). In another set of sentences *wants to help* is marked as a single verb; this suggests that as the infinitive *to help* is not a complete verb *wants to help* is. But there is no place in functional grammar for a category of full verb in this sense. *Wants* is a verb forming a verbal group, and *to help* is another verbal group; there is some uncertainty as to whether the two verbal groups combine to form a verbal group complex or whether the second constitutes a dependent clause in a clause complex, but *wants to help* is certainly not a verb.

[48] 2:51R

Circumstances ... are realised by ADVERB GROUPS COMPRISING ADVERBS OR PREPOSITION PHRASES THAT SERVE AN ADVERBIAL FUNCTION.

This is a further case of confusion over the distinction between functions and classes. There are three mistakes in the wording:

(a) It is inconsistent with the use elsewhere of 'adverb group' as a unit at the word group/phrase rank that is headed by an adverb; preposition phrases are not headed by adverbs, and hence cannot be adverb groups.

(b) It doesn't cater for expressions like *very quickly*, since that is neither an adverb nor a preposition phrase. *Very quickly* is an adverb group, and if we replace 'adverbs' by adverb groups' the confusion becomes more apparent: 'adverb groups comprising adverb groups or preposition phrases ...'

(c) In functional grammar statements of the form 'X is realised by Y', X is generally a function and Y is a class (or set of classes), so the relative clause 'that serve an adverbial function' is not only confused in treating the class term 'adverbial' as a function label (cf. [30] above), but also out of place: the function of the preposition phrases is that of Circumstance.

The highlighted part of [48] should read: 'adverb groups or preposition phrases'.

[49] 2:51R

Table 1: Types of Circumstances

Type & Question	Examples
...	
Time	
When?	<i>later; by 7.00 o'clock; yesterday</i>
How long?	<i>so far; ALL DAY; for a month</i>
How often?	<i>often; a lot; from week to week</i>

All day is a noun group, not an adverb group or preposition phrase, so this example is inconsistent with the statement concerning the realisation of Circumstances cited in [48]. Either the example should be changed or, better, the realisation statement should be qualified.

[50] 2:52L

The core of the Mood block comprises:

- the Finite verb that indicates tense (*is, has, was*), the speaker's opinion if the finite verb is modal (*will, may, must, etc*), and negative or positive polarity (*The adventurer would NEVER climb this mountain again.*)

Another case where functional grammar is misrepresented. *Never* is not part of the finite verb: it is an adverb functioning as an Adjunct of modality within the Mood element (see IFG:128, 133). Certainly finite verbs can express negative polarity, but that is because they have negative forms like *isn't, can't*, etc. (IFG:116); *would never* is not a negative verb-form: it is a sequence of verb + adverb. The analysis of *never* here as part of the finite verb is inconsistent with Table 4 (p. 57), where it is correctly listed as a Modal adjunct.

[51] 2:52L

The order of the Subject and the Finite verb determines the Mood of the clause:

- Subject + Finite DEFINES the Declarative Mood that realises a statement (*The adventurer will climb the mountain again.*) ...
- Finite + Subject defines the Interrogative Mood that realises a question (*Will the adventurer climb the mountain again?*)
- no Subject + no Finite DEFINES the Imperative Mood that realises a command (*Climb the mountain!*)

There are three points to make here:

(a) The default or usual order for declarative clauses has the Subject preceding the Finite, but it is a mistake to say that that order DEFINES declarative mood. Clauses like *Never before have fans been promised such a feast of speed ...* (IFG:127) or *More important are the moral objections* are unquestionably declarative clauses even though the Finite precedes the Subject, which according to the second bullet point in the quotation would make them interrogative. It may not be necessary to mention such declarative constructions in a short overview, but they should not be ruled out by definition.

(b) Similarly, while the simplest type of imperative clause, like *Climb the mountain*, has no Subject and no Finite, this cannot be used to DEFINE imperatives. Subjects in fact are quite common: my 'Problems' article gives the examples *Nobody move*, *You be quiet*, *You have a nice day*, *Don't you speak to me like that*. Functional grammar, moreover, analyses *don't* as in *Don't move!* and *do* in *Do be careful* as Finites. Again, I am not saying that it is necessary to mention all these constructions in a short overview, but there is no justification for ruling them out by definition.

Lest there be any doubt on the matter, let me emphasise that the underlined expressions in the above examples are indeed Subjects, not Vocatives (such as we have in, say, *Mary, would you mind opening the window?*). The imperative Subjects are clearly distinguished from vocatives intonationally and by the fact that they can combine with genuine vocatives, as in *Don't you speak to me like that, John*.

(c) I have observed that functional grammar distinguishes notationally between function terms and class terms by using an upper case initial for the former. The Coalface Grammar doesn't follow this convention in Part 1, whereas in Part 2 it uses upper case initials for functions at times, but not always and not exclusively. The quotation shows the function 'Subject' correctly marked with upper case 'S', but on p. 49L (the first page of the second article), for example, we find 'a verb agrees with its subject in person and number'. And in the first line of the quotation we find 'the Finite verb' with upper case 'F' although 'finite verb' is a class term (the corresponding function term is just 'Finite', or 'Finite element'). And 'Mood' is the name of a system, not a function, while 'Declarative' names a class (a term in the system of mood).

[52] 2:52L

When we described the structure of a noun group as a realisation of a Participant, we identified the Head word of the noun group. The HEAD WORD of a Participant in a 'DOER' type role is operating as a grammatical Subject.

There are two errors here.

(a) It is not the Head word of the noun group that operates as Subject but the whole noun group. The statement quoted is inconsistent with the general practice in the Coalface Grammar: note, for instance, that in the first example in [51] the Subject is identified by underlining as *the adventurer*, not *adventurer*. It is likewise inconsistent with the theoretical framework of

functional grammar as taken over in the Coalface Grammar: Subject is a function in clause structure and as such will be realised by a unit from the rank next below, normally a noun group, not by a unit from two ranks below, a noun. It is true that traditional grammar would say that in *The adventurer will climb the mountain again* the Subject is *adventurer*, but traditional grammar doesn't have a category matching the noun group (or nominal group or noun phrase) of modern grammars, so it would certainly not say that *adventurer* was Head of a noun group. Traditional grammar in general works with dependency relations, not a hierarchy of constituents, and it would be quite indefensible to switch temporarily and without explanation from one theoretical framework to another radically different one in the middle of Part 2.

(b) The second mistake is to associate the Subject with the 'doer' role. This repeats the error discussed in [39] above and needs no further comment here, except to say that it is particularly inexcusable in the present context. For the focus here is on the distinction between the ideational, interpersonal and textual structures, and 'doer' was presented on the previous page as a type of Participant occurring in only one of four major types of process distinguished and on the next page the point is made that in *The race was won by the boy* the doer is 'relegated to the phrase beginning with *by*'.

[53] 2:52R

A Finite and its Subject must agree in number ... and person ... For example:

i. *There is a girl called Sam. There are two girls called Sam.*

The examples here are ambiguous, and problems arise on both readings. The ambiguity stems from the fact that *there* could be either a locative adverb (contrasting with *here*: compare *Here is a girl called Sam*) or a semantically empty element (such as it unambiguously is in examples like *There's something wrong with the battery*).

In the locative interpretation, the verb agrees with *a girl called Sam* and *two girls called Sam*, and these are undoubtedly the Subject. But the examples are declaratives and hence are inconsistent with the definition of declaratives on the same page as having the order Subject + Finite: see [51] above.

In the empty *there* interpretation the examples are 'existential clauses'. Here the verb agrees with the same two nominal groups, but these are not Subject either in functional grammar or elsewhere in the Coalface grammar. Functional grammar analyses *there* as Subject, and the Coalface Grammar does the same in the example *There are mountains in Peru* discussed in Part 1 (p. 37R). Moreover, the glossary entry for Subject in Part 2 (p. 57) says that Subject is 'testable using a Mood tag': the Mood tag for an existential clause repeats the *there* Subject, as in *There are mountains in Peru, aren't there?*

[54] 2:52R

What is important to understand about a Mood block is that it establishes a basis for argument or negotiation. If there is no Mood block, then no argument or negotiation can occur. This can be determined by adding a Mood tag to check. For example, *Does the bus stop here?* is presented as an invitation to respond. In *The bus stops here* we can add a Mood tag – *doesn't it?* This invites a response. In contrast, *Stop the bus here! Do stop the bus here!* and *You, stop the bus here!* can generate no Mood tag and therefore can invite no interaction. ... So, the Mood block permits interaction

This is another misrepresentation of functional grammar. There are three errors.

(a) Again, it is a mistake to say that there is no Mood block in *Do stop the bus here!*: it contains a Finite element (cf. [51b] above). Furthermore, such clauses can take Mood tags: *Do stop the bus here, won't you?* – compare *Do take care, won't you?* from IFG:140.

(b) It is a mistake to say that imperative clauses containing no Mood block can't take a Mood tag. We can, for example, add *will you?* or *won't you?* to *Stop the bus here*. Again, an example of this kind is given in IFG:140 – *Come into my parlour, will you?*

(c) It is a mistake, more generally, to see the Mood block as a prerequisite for inviting interaction. Functional grammar sees the clause (on the interpersonal dimension) as 'organized as an interactive event' (IFG:106). Cross-cutting contrasts are made between GIVING and DEMANDING (involving different roles for the speaker) and between INFORMATION and GOODS-&-SERVICES (involving the nature of the commodity being exchanged in the interactive event). The giving of information is a statement, the giving of goods-&-services is an offer, the demanding of information is a question and the demanding of goods-&-services is a command. To quote IFG:107,

Typically, therefore, an 'act' of speaking is something that might more appropriately be called an **interact**: it is an exchange, in which giving implies receiving and demanding implies giving in response.

This applies quite generally, irrespective of the presence or absence of a Mood element: the quotation comes at the beginning of the chapter, before the question of structure has arisen, and this chapter on the interpersonal metafunction as it applies to clauses is called 'Clause as exchange'. The Mood element is introduced later and explained as 'the element that realizes the selection of mood in the clause' (IFG:113) – i.e. the choice between declarative, interrogative, imperative, etc: it is not a prerequisite for inviting interaction.

[55] 2:52R

The Mood block is so central to Interpersonal meaning that anything in a clause other than the Mood block is regarded as the Residue. The most important part in the Residue is the PREDICATOR (LEXICAL VERB).

It is a mistake to identify the Predicator with the lexical verb:

The Predicator ... is realized by a verbal group minus the temporal or modal operator, which as we have seen functions as the Finite in the Mood element; for example in the verbal groups *was shining, have been working, may be going to be replaced* the parts functioning as Predicator are *shining, been working, be going to be replaced*. (IFG:121)

Thus the Predicator consists of the lexical verb TOGETHER WITH ANY AUXILIARY VERBS. This error relates to that discussed in [13], where the Coalface Grammar likewise ignored auxiliary verbs, recognising only two classes, finite and lexical. Yet only two pages earlier (50R) it had presented functional grammar's analysis of the verb group in terms of finite, auxiliary and lexical verbs.

[56] 2:52R

At clause level, textual meaning is expressed through the packaging of information. WHAT COMES FIRST IS 'KNOWN' and leads to 'new' information. What comes first in

a Textual analysis is the grammatical THEME.

This is another major misrepresentation of functional grammar. It says that the Theme represents known information, whereas functional grammar emphasises the distinction between, on the one hand, INFORMATION STRUCTURE, contrasting GIVEN (= the Coalface Grammar's 'known') and NEW, and, on the other hand, THEMATIC STRUCTURE, contrasting THEME and RHEME. Very often the two structures match, with the Theme falling within the given information and new information falling within the Rheme. But they don't have to match in this way: in particular, the Theme is not always given. In my 'Problems' article I gave examples of clauses where the Theme is new: *Something strange is happening* and *Sue did*, spoken as answer to the question *Who called the police?* (contrast *She called the police* as answer to the question *What did Sue do?*: here the Theme *she* IS given).

This error can be related to that where the Subject is said to denote 'something about which an assertion is made', discussed in [39]: the Coalface Grammar ascribes to the Subject a meaning that is roughly the same as that which functional grammar assigns to the Theme, and then ascribes to the Theme the meaning which functional grammar assigns to the given element in information structure.

[57] 2:52R–53L

Grammatical Theme is identified by marking off a clause to the end of the first functional component – Participant, Process or Circumstance – identified in an Experiential analysis. For example:

- *The thief took the witness stand in the court.* [Participant/Subject] ...
- *STANDING IN THE WITNESS BOX, THE THIEF gave evidence.* [Participant/Subject]

The sequence I have highlighted is not a noun group functioning as Subject of *gave evidence*: functional grammar does not allow for a non-finite clause to precede the Deictic element in this way, as evident from the section on nominal group structure in IFG:311–335. The whole example is a clause complex, where *standing in the witness box* is a dependent clause and *the thief gave evidence* an independent clause; the Subject of *gave evidence* is thus just *the thief*.

[58] 2:53L

This packaging [of information] includes:

(a) embedding and RANK SHIFTING of structural elements ...

Embedding with rankshifting packs additional information into word groups by including structures that, in other situations, may work as functional elements in their own right. For example, post-qualifying phrases and clauses in noun groups are DOWN-RANKED embedded structures, e.g., *The adventurer with frostbitten fingers.* *The adventurer who suffered from frostbite.*

This is the first mention of rankshift in the Coalface Grammar and the first correct use of the concept of downranking. There is no mention of the fact that it requires a modification of the account of rank given at the beginning of Part 1 (cf. [2]), and no satisfactory explanation of what rankshift is – the use of a unit of one rank to function in the structure of a unit of the same or lower rank. Notice, for example, that it doesn't allow for the rankshift of a nominal group into the structure of a preposition phrase, as in *He's in the kitchen*, where the nominal group *the kitchen* functions as Complement in the structure of the preposition phrase *in the kitchen*, nominal groups and preposition phrases being units of the same rank.

[59] 2:53L

Similarly, adverbial groups may also include embedded phrases and clauses, e.g.,
 [The adventurer climbed] to the peak with a snow-covered cap. [The adventurer
 climbed] to the peak with a covering of snow. [The adventurer climbed] to the peak
that was covered in snow.

This quotation is a continuation of that in [58]. The so-called adverbial groups (the unbracketed sequences) are in fact preposition phrases, but the rankshifted items (underlined) are not functioning in the structure of those preposition phrases. These phrases consist simply of a preposition (functioning as what functional grammar calls a 'minor Predicator') and a noun group (with Complement function). The underlined phrases and clause are then Post-qualifiers in the noun group, and hence no different from those in [58].

[60] 2:56

Table 2: the pre-modifying structural pattern of noun groups (Participants) in English, with examples⁷

Pre-modifying structures								Head word
Determiners			Adjectives					
article	demonstrative	possessive pronoun	numerative or quantity adjective	opinion or attitudinal adjective	factual adjective	comparing adjective	classifying adjective	noun or pronoun
<i>the</i>		<i>your</i>	<i>two</i>	<i>hasty</i> <i>blue</i>			<i>SCHOOL</i>	<i>decisions</i> <i>folder</i>
	<i>this</i>					<i>older</i>		<i>you</i> <i>house</i>
<i>some</i>	<i>these</i>		<i>several</i>	<i>beautiful</i> <i>famous</i>	<i>stone</i>		<i>LANDSCAPE</i> <i>Christian</i>	<i>paintings</i> <i>cathedrals</i>
<i>a</i>		<i>SAM'S</i> <i>one's</i>				<i>fastest</i> <i>very faded</i>	<i>RACING</i> <i>vintage</i>	<i>meal</i> <i>boys</i> <i>results</i> <i>car</i>
<i>a</i>			<i>SET OF</i>					<i>bowls</i> <i>it</i>
Which?	Which?	Whose?	How many? How much?	Perceived qualities?	Observed qualities?	Degree of similarity?	What type?	Who?

This table repeats the errors of classifying a word (this time it is *your*) as simultaneously a possessive pronoun and a determiner (see [45]), and *set of* as an adjective (see [46]). There are three further points to make.

(a) The classification of *Sam's* as a possessive pronoun and hence also determiner is probably the most extraordinary error of them all – but even more extraordinary is the fact that it has not been acknowledged as an error. One might have thought that its inclusion in the possessive pronoun column of the table was due to a momentary aberration, but the fact that it has not been acknowledged rules that out. There is also further evidence against that view in the 'Possible Focused Learning Episodes' in Part 1 (p. 43L): *Peter's* is not counted as a noun in an exercise where students are asked to identify nouns.

⁷ I omit the rightmost column, headed 'Post-qualifying structures', as it is not relevant to the errors discussed (and instead of examples we merely have a cross-reference to Table 3).

The classification of *Sam's* as a pronoun is inconsistent with the statement that nouns inflect for case, common case (*boy*) contrasting with possessive case (*boy's*) (Part 1, p. 36R). It is also inconsistent with the inclusion of the pronoun among the closed classes (Part 1, p. 35R), for the class of words like *Sam's* is clearly open.

The most important evidence against the Coalface Grammar's analysis, however, is that possessives are not restricted to single words: we can have, for example, *Uncle Sam's results*, or with a common noun now instead of a proper noun, *the doctor's behaviour*, *the new boss's plans*, and so on. There is an example of this kind in the learning activity referred to above: *a little girl's life* (Part 1, p. 43R), where *girl's* is not identified as a noun, even though the discussion of the exercise gives as a feature that helps pick out nouns that 'articles such as *a* or *the* or *their* might precede them in a noun group' (which, incidentally, contains another error: *their* is a possessive pronoun, not an article). The underlined expressions in the above examples must be noun groups – and since they are functioning in the structure of another noun group, not in the structure of the next higher unit (the clause), they are rankshifted. They occupy the same position in the structure of the noun group as articles and demonstratives, but the Coalface Grammar tries to account for this likeness by assigning them to the same CLASS as the latter, namely determiners, whereas the likeness is in fact one of FUNCTION: they are all Deictics (in functional grammar's sense of that term). The class heading 'Determiners' in Table 2 should be replaced by the function label 'Deictics', and under this there should be two headings for the classes that can realise the Deictic function: determiners (articles, demonstratives and others) and rankshifted possessive noun groups.

Compare, then, IFG:314, where the table shows *John's* and *my father's* as rankshifted expressions functioning as Deictic. The Coalface Grammar's error thus arises through NOT taking a functional perspective: it focuses on classes instead of functions, and fails to see that the concept of rankshift needs to be invoked.

(b) The same focus on class rather than function is seen in the part of the table headed 'Adjectives'. A functionally-oriented account would have been in terms of Numerative, Epithet and Classifier (see my §Ib above). And it is because the Coalface Grammar is working in terms of classes, not functions, that it classifies *school*, *landscape* and *racing* as adjectives, instead of nouns, the same error as was made in [9].

(c) The title of the table effectively equates Participants with noun groups. This is a serious mistake, for noun groups and Participants are different kinds of concepts, class and function respectively, and do not stand in a one-to-one relation. Compare, for example: *He wasted the whole morning* and *He watched TV the whole morning*. In the former the noun group *the whole morning* is a Participant, but in the latter it is not: it is a Circumstance. And in *The house opposite the post-office burned down* the noun group *the post-office* is embedded in a larger noun group, so it is not functioning in clause structure and hence is itself neither Participant nor Circumstance. So noun groups don't always realise Participants. Conversely, Participants are not always realised by noun groups, as shown by examples like *He gave the parcel to his brother at home*, where the preposition phrase *to his brother* is a Participant (see [44]).

[61] 2:57

Table 4: the structural pattern of verb groups (Processes) in English, with examples

finite / modal;	auxiliary	Pre-modifying structures		polarity	auxiliary	Head word lexical verb
		auxiliary	Modal adjunct			
<i>is</i>			<i>definitely</i>	<i>not</i>		<i>going</i>
	<i>may</i>		<i>never</i>		<i>be</i>	<i>going</i>
<i>will</i>		<i>have</i>	<i>been</i>			<i>went</i>
	<i>must</i>	<i>be</i>				<i>going</i>
<i>has</i>			<i>possibly</i>			<i>gone</i>
<i>did</i>						<i>go</i>
	<i>would</i>	<i>have</i>	<i>been</i>			<i>going</i>
	<i>Tense?</i>					

It is an error to have modal CONTRASTING WITH finite: the modals *may*, *must* and *would* here ARE finite. In [13] the Coalface Grammar had modal contrasting with auxiliary as subclasses of finite verb but, as we noted, that is wrong too. On p. 51L it says that 'Modal finites ... [may] replace other finites', but doesn't have a name for the latter. Functional grammar divides finite verbs into TEMPORAL OPERATORS and MODAL OPERATORS, so in this table these should be the headings for the two leftmost columns, and finite should be a higher heading covering them both.

It is also an error to have '*Tense?*' at the foot of the modal column: it belongs at the foot of the leftmost column. In addition the table repeats the error noted in [12] of treating the lexical verb as Head of the verb group.

[62] 2:57

Table 5: Examples of functional components in clauses

Circumstance	Participant	Process	Participant	Participant	Circumstance
	<i>Sam</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>an attractive girl</i>		
	<i>Sam</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>a girl that I like</i>		
	<i>Sam</i>	<i>gave</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>a gift</i>	<i>earlier today</i>
<i>Yesterday</i>	<i>Sam</i>	<i>sent</i>	<i>a birthday card</i>	<i>TO ME</i>	
	<i>Sam</i>	<i>will probably give</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>a gift</i>	<i>next year</i>
	<i>Today</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>my birthday</i>		
<i>By her own efforts</i>	<i>Sam</i>	<i>won</i>	<i>the trophy</i>		
		<i>Take</i>	<i>my present</i>		<i>to my room</i>
	<i>Sam</i>	<i>is not</i>	<i>very energetic</i>		
<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>train</i>			<i>with Sam</i>
		<i>Is</i>	<i>Sam</i>	<i>my best friend?</i>	
<i>This evening</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>am having</i>	<i>a party</i>		<i>with my family</i>
	<i>I</i>	<i>have never had</i>	<i>a party</i>		<i>before</i>
<i>How/when/ where/why?</i>	<i>Who/What?</i>	<i>What event?</i>	<i>Who/what?</i>	<i>Who/what?</i>	<i>How/when/ where/why?</i>

Note: It is demonstrated above that words take their word class from the function they serve in a clause. 'TODAY', FOR EXAMPLE, FUNCTIONS AS A NOUN IN ONE CLAUSE AND AS AN ADVERB IN ANOTHER.

There are two points to make about this table.

- (a) The inclusion of the preposition phrase *to me* in the Participant column and the noun group *next year* in the Circumstance column are inconsistent with the statement given in [43] that Participants are realised by noun groups or by adjectives expressing attributes and that Circumstances are realised by adverbial groups (or preposition phrases).

(b) The Note provides further illustration of the failure to apply the fundamental distinction between FUNCTIONS and CLASSES. Noun and adverb are classes, not functions. In *Today is my birthday*, then, *today* is not functioning as a noun: it is functioning as Head of a group which in turn functions as Subject; Subjects are normally realised by noun groups, and this is why this occurrence of *today* is classified as a noun group and then as a noun. In *Sam gave me a gift earlier today*, we similarly don't say that *today* functions as an adverb: it is Head of a group functioning as Adjunct/Circumstance; this function is characteristically realised by an adverbial group or a preposition phrase and since *earlier today* doesn't contain a preposition functional grammar takes it as an adverbial group and *today* as an adverb.

[63] 2:57

AUXILIARY: an element of a verb group THAT WORKS WITH THE FINITE TO EXPRESS TENSE

This is a glossary entry. No example has been provided to clarify what it means, and no tense analysis has been given of verb groups containing auxiliaries. But the glossary entry cannot be true, for auxiliaries can occur in non-finite verb groups like that in *It's unusual for them to be working at this time*: there's no Finite for the auxiliary *be* here to 'work with'.

[64] 2:57

Subject : THE 'DOER' OF THE ACTION expressed by the verb; and testable by using a MOOD TAG

This entry from the Glossary is a good illustration of the inconsistency that is so prevalent in the Coalface Grammar. Note:

(a) that a glossary entry for the Subject had already been given in Part 1 (p. 42L) which is quite different from the one given here (see [39]);

(b) that 'doer' was given on p. 51L as the name of a Participant role in the ideational metafunction, applying in combination with only one of the four main types of process (i.e. with doing processes, but not being, thinking or saying processes), whereas Subject is a function in the interpersonal metafunction applying in all declarative main clauses. Thus *he is ill*, for example, has a Subject (*he*), but no doer.

(c) that examples like *The race was won by the boy*, cited on p. 53R, show the glossary entry to be internally inconsistent: the doer is *the boy*, but the Subject, as identified by the mood tag, is *the race* (cf. *The race was won by the boy, wasn't it?*).

[65] 2:57

TENSE: aspects of timing – past, present or future – expressed by finite and auxiliary verbs, and PARTICIPLES.

There is no mention or exemplification elsewhere in the Coalface Grammar of participles being used to express tense. Moreover, this glossary entry is inconsistent with the statement in Part 1 (p. 37R) that the participles are non-tensed forms. It is also inconsistent with functional grammar. There the traditional participles in non-finite clauses are analysed as markers of IMPERFECTIVE ASPECT, in contrast to the infinitive, which is perfective.

§III. Conclusion

It is now more than two years since I first reported the majority of the errors catalogued in §II, yet all but a handful remain unacknowledged and uncorrected and no attempt has been made to demonstrate, with grammatical evidence and argument, that most of the items in the catalogue are not really errors at all. In my view, this situation is indefensible, and I hope that the present document will persuade the Management Committee and members of ETAQ that the Coalface Grammar incontestably fails to provide a satisfactory overview of English grammar in general or functional grammar in particular that is suitable for use as a teaching resource.

The Coalface project, as evident from the quotation at the beginning of this paper, was organised by ETAQ following input from members. It is very unfortunate that the Coalface Grammar component of it turned out to be so defective, but it is important that readers of *Words'Worth* should be made aware that it is full of errors. I respectfully urge the Management Committee to arrange for the Grammar to be revised and corrected, or at least withdrawn, so that members do not incorporate its errors into their classroom teaching. It is not enough to say that the views expressed in *Words'Worth* articles are not necessarily those of ETAQ: members need clear guidance from the Committee to the effect that the numerous errors in the Coalface Grammar make it unsuitable for use as a teaching resource.

I am very conscious of the fact that I write as a non-member of ETAQ, but it is surely evident that the matter is not one that concerns only the Association. A teaching resource aims to influence what is taught in the classroom – where the students are not of course members of the Association. And the scale and seriousness of the errors in the Coalface Grammar are such that students will be significantly disadvantaged if they are taught this material.

It is for this reason that I have felt impelled to make a further attempt to have the errors properly acknowledged and corrected. Having devoted much of my professional career to the study of English grammar, I feel I have a right and indeed a duty to draw attention to the errors and to do all I can to persuade ETAQ members not to incorporate into their teaching the erroneous statements and analyses contained in the Coalface Grammar.