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AUTHOR Chiu, Rosaline K.
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ABSTRACT

Course designers and teachers of English as a second or foreign language need a pedagogical grammar, that is, a collection of linguistic statements about English which specifies the linguistic behaviors that an ESL/EFL learner will need to acquire and which can easily be used in the preparation of materials and lessons. Pedagogical grammars should, among other things, supply information on how and how often the grammatical items and patterns are used, in what typical situations and between whom, and when they are most frequently and appropriately used. An ad hoc but systematic description of relevant registers would supply the kind of analytical, quantitative, and contextual information required by pedagogical grammars. Such a description was provided by several register-oriented and ESL-oriented research projects carried out in Canada (described in detail with accompanying graphs and charts). The groups used in these projects were the English- and French-speaking government employees who need to have skill in the registers of administrative and boardroom English--both in writing and in speaking. (HOD)

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Describing the Grammatical-statistical Patterns in Registers:

Towards the Making of Pedagogical Grammars

**Rosaline K. Chiu
Research Division
Directorate of Studies
Staff Development Branch
Public Service Commission of Canada**

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The convergence in recent years of a number of disciplines on the study of intra-lingual variations¹ has resulted in a great deal of information, which, I think, is of direct relevance to language education. It seems to me that the insights and information gained from this interdisciplinary movement have already left their marks on the theory and practice of the teaching of English as a mother-tongue. I would cite as examples Doughty et al's Language in Use² designed as 'the exploration of the richness, the functional variety and the expressive resources of the mother tongue'³, for secondary school pupils, and Gahagan and Gahagan's Talk Reform⁴ designed as a full program to stimulate the children's use of the elaborated code in school. However, such insights and information have not yet been systematically assimilated nor adequately applied in our field of instruction, the teaching of English to speakers of other languages at home or abroad.

Elsewhere, I examined the applicability of the concept of register to some aspects of ESL/EFL pedagogy⁵. The notion of register, the variety of language according to use, covers the whole complex of varieties that make up language - comprehending such differences as the distinction between written and spoken English, monologue and dialogue, formal and informal, scientific and literary English and many more. I have proposed that the multi-dimensional framework of register-classification used by linguists to categorize the

whole range of co-existing functional varieties of English may profitably be adopted by language educators to map out and locate the sociolinguistic requirements of their particular groups of learners. My contention is that more relevant and economical ESL/EFL course design, and more effective and realistic teaching would be difficult unless an explicit learner typology is formulated in terms of a register-framework. We need to know whether our learners will interact with professional colleagues in technical discussion, in committee work and in formal social situations, whether they need proficiency in handling both public administration and informal social intercourse, or whether they only need to understand written materials in their own field. I attempted to demonstrate the feasibility of adopting the concept of register, as a guiding principle for program development, so that TESOL programs would systematically guide learners through the range of registers of English which they are most likely to need in real life. I have also reported some results of our research efforts directed towards the study of several registers within the framework of English⁶. Through our linguistic analysis we have come to know more precisely what it is that is idiosyncratically 'administrative' about 'administrative correspondence', and what the characteristics of 'boardroom discussion' are. Such research findings are important to our

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course-designers and teachers whose students will have to function adequately in these two varieties of English in their work domain.

The present paper focuses on another area of ESL pedagogy -- the preparation of pedagogical grammars for course designers and teachers. I would like to discuss the nature and form of such grammars and to suggest the kind of information they should supply to meet the practical needs of ESL course designers and teachers.

ESL course designers and teachers have the standard English grammars to count on in their work -- Jespersen⁷, Fries⁸, Gleason⁹, Quirk¹⁰, etc. But experience tells us that too often the grammarian's description of the language ends where the textbook writer's and the teacher's needs begin. For, although the grammarians may provide a comprehensive description of the code, or an exhaustive explanation of the competence of the native speaker, they seldom provide information on usage -- information on how the code works in real life situations, or on what the native speaker does with the code to meet the multifarious communicative needs of everyday life. For instance, the standard English grammars do not generally indicate the relative frequency of occurrence of items and patterns, nor do they normally give clues to the situations where items and patterns are most naturally and appropriately used. As Ronald White of the

University of Manchester observes in his paper 'The Concept of Register and T.E.O.' presented to the Linguistic Association of Great Britain, 1973, that even in the Quirk et al grammar, there is only one page out of many hundreds devoted to a consideration of the frequency of various types of Noun Groups. Thus, it is apparent that the course designer or the teacher who has to select, grade and contextualize items and patterns for presentation will have little else to consult except his intuition, common sense and experience.

Here is where, I think, pedagogical grammars should come in and assume a role in ESL pedagogy. And, it seems to me that this is also an area where insight and information, techniques and methods acquired from register-study could profitably be applied.

As observed by Spolsky, pedagogical grammars belong to the class of practical grammars¹¹. The criteria for evaluating practical grammars arise not from any theoretical considerations, but from the specific uses for which the grammars are intended. Thus, pedagogical grammars are to be evaluated by criteria of usefulness in achieving the aims assigned. Pedagogical grammars can be written for the language when it is the native tongue of the learners or when it is a foreign language. Likewise, pedagogical grammars can be prepared for the teacher's use or for the learner's use. Here, we are concerned with pedagogical grammars for the ESL/EFL course designer or teacher. Again, following Spolsky's definition¹², I would define

a pedagogical grammar for the ESL/EFL course designer or teacher as a collection of linguistic statements about English which specifies the linguistic behaviours that an ESL/EFL learner will need to acquire and which can easily be used by the ESL/EFL course designer or teacher in the preparation of materials and lessons. The most important criterion of adequacy for such a grammar will be the ease of convertibility into teaching material; of considerable importance too will be suggestions as to the hierarchy and the order of presentation of the material. James Noblitt's recent IRAL article 'Pedagogical Grammar: Towards a Theory of Foreign Language Materials Preparation' similarly stresses such features of a pedagogical grammar. 'A PG may be viewed as a series of synchronic statements of the students' successive approximation of the target language. It must not only formulate a series of learning events in terms of specified objectives, it must further determine the contingencies for the most efficient ordering and presentation of these events. As such a PG is not a pedagogical text -- it is rather the basis on which a text is constructed.¹³'

To meet the practical needs of the ESL course designer or teacher, pedagogical grammars should, among other things, supply information on how and how often the grammatical items and patterns are used, in what typical situations and between whom, and when they are most frequently and appropriately used. These are important criteria for selecting, grading and

contextualizing. As nicely and simply illustrated by Ronald White, "There will be very little value in attempting to teach, say, finite item + ed and past tense narrative in the context of geographical description, since these occur with low frequency in this context. However, historical narrative - obviously enough - presents an appropriate context for the presentation and practising of these verb items, since around 75% of verb forms in the sample studied consisted of stem + ed forms of lexical verbs and past tense".

The recognition of quantitative information on frequency and distribution of items and patterns as valid and integral descriptive statements of pedagogical grammars is overdue. H.V. George, based on his admirable study, Verb Form Frequency Count, advocated ten years ago that frequency of occurrence should be taken as a control factor for ESL course design and grammatical statement¹⁴. As one of the conclusions of his study, he wrote, "Statements of proportionate frequency of occurrence are significant descriptive statements, and a grammar must be judged to fall short of its descriptive aim if it does not include them¹⁵".

I suggest that ad hoc but systematic description of relevant registers would supply the kind of analytical, quantitative and contextual information required by pedagogical grammars. I am referring to the kind of studies pioneered by Leech¹⁶, Ure¹⁷, Crystal, Davy¹⁸, Strevens¹⁹, Huddleston²⁰ and

White²¹, where the description of English is carried out within the framework of register, although the aims of the studies may be other than for the immediate benefit of second language teaching. The corpora they study were functionally delimited by register variables variously labelled as Field, Manner, Mode, Tenor, Province, etc. Ad hoc and systematic descriptions of registers of English yield both analytical and quantitative data on the language as used for different purposes, reflecting authentic linguistic performance in authentic situations. Such corpus-based studies do not only aim at describing the code, but also at describing how the code is used in functionally-delimited but re-current situations. In other words, the description is not only of the items and patterns of the code, but also the frequency and distribution of these items and patterns in narrowly circumscribed situation-types. This type of information, in my mind, is part of the requirement of pedagogical grammars.

With such preliminaries, I would like to report some of the results of register-centered and ESL-oriented research projects carried out in Canada. The projects aim at describing the grammatical-statistical patterns inherent in the linguistic performance of native speakers of English in various situations. I would also like to show that such grammatical-statistical patterns are important components in the preparation of pedagogical grammars for ESL course designers and teachers.

In Canada we have two official languages - English and French. In the English schools of the Language Bureau, one of the teaching targets is to enable French-speaking government employees to function in English in their work. A similar program exists to teach English-speaking employees French. Among other skills, our students will be expected to understand and write in the register of administrative English. In this case, the purpose of the language use is to administer, to authorise, to instruct, to inform, to report, to request or to forward information according to the accepted conventions of this specific variety of English within the government hierarchy. The field of discourse is, therefore, administration. The social rôle which the language-user plays in his official rôle in the public service, while the social attitude will be polite or formal. Such is the manner of discourse. And the mode of discourse is of course writing. This is one of the functional varieties of English that our specific group of learners need to master. The following is a schematic presentation of this register delimited along the three dimensions of manner of discourse, field of discourse and mode of discourse²²:

	<u>Situational</u> <u>Categories</u>	<u>Contextual</u> <u>Categories</u>	<u>English</u> <u>Varieties</u>	<u>Register</u>
User's	{ Addressee	Manner of	Formal	} Formal
	{ relationship	discourse	English	
	{ Purposive	Field of	Administrative	} Adminis- trative
	{ role	discourse	English	
{ Medium	Mode of	Written	} Written	
{ relationship	discourse	English		

Diagram 1

Another register that some of our students will need to know is boardroom discussion. High-ranking public servants are expected to participate in official meetings in the formal atmosphere of the boardroom as part of their administrative function. In this case, the social rôles the language-users play are again their official rôles in the public service, and the social attitude is again polite and formal. The purpose of the language-users is to discuss ideas and problems so that consensus can be reached, decisions and recommendations can be made. And in this case speech, rather than writing, is the mode of discourse. This register delimited along the three dimensions of manner of discourse, field of discourse and mode of discourse could be schematically presented as follows:

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	<u>Situational</u> <u>Categories</u>	<u>Contextual</u> <u>Categories</u>		<u>Register</u>	
User's	(Addressee	Manner of	Formal	Formal	
	(relationship	discourse	English		
	(Purposive	Field of	Boardroom		Boardroom
	(role	discourse	Discussion		Discussion
	(English		(Spoken)
	(Medium	Mode of	Spoken		English
	(relationship	discourse	English		

Diagram 2

Since we know that our students will encounter situations where they will be required to use the above-mentioned varieties of English, the Research Division of the Directorate of Studies has carried out a linguistic study on these two varieties. Several papers have already been written on the results of this study²³. Today, I shall again use some of the findings to illustrate my point that the description of grammatical-statistical patterns in specific registers will contribute to the making of pedagogical grammars for ESL course designers and teachers. We shall look at how the English modal auxiliaries are used in these two distinct registers.

The written corpus of slightly over 250,000 running words of administrative writing, randomly sampled, is all dated no further back than 1968. The corpus can be regarded

as representative of Standard Canadian Government English, since the correspondence is either interdepartmental, intradepartmental or from government departments to outside concerns. The spoken corpus is about one-quarter of the size of the written one. It consists of 60,000 running words of government boardroom discussions taped and then transcribed. A verb phrase analysis has been done on both corpora. Today, we shall only look at the results of the modal verb phrases, ie, verb phrases marked in the category of mood by the closed class of twelve modal auxiliaries: *can, could, may, might, will, would, shall, should, must, ought, dare and need.*

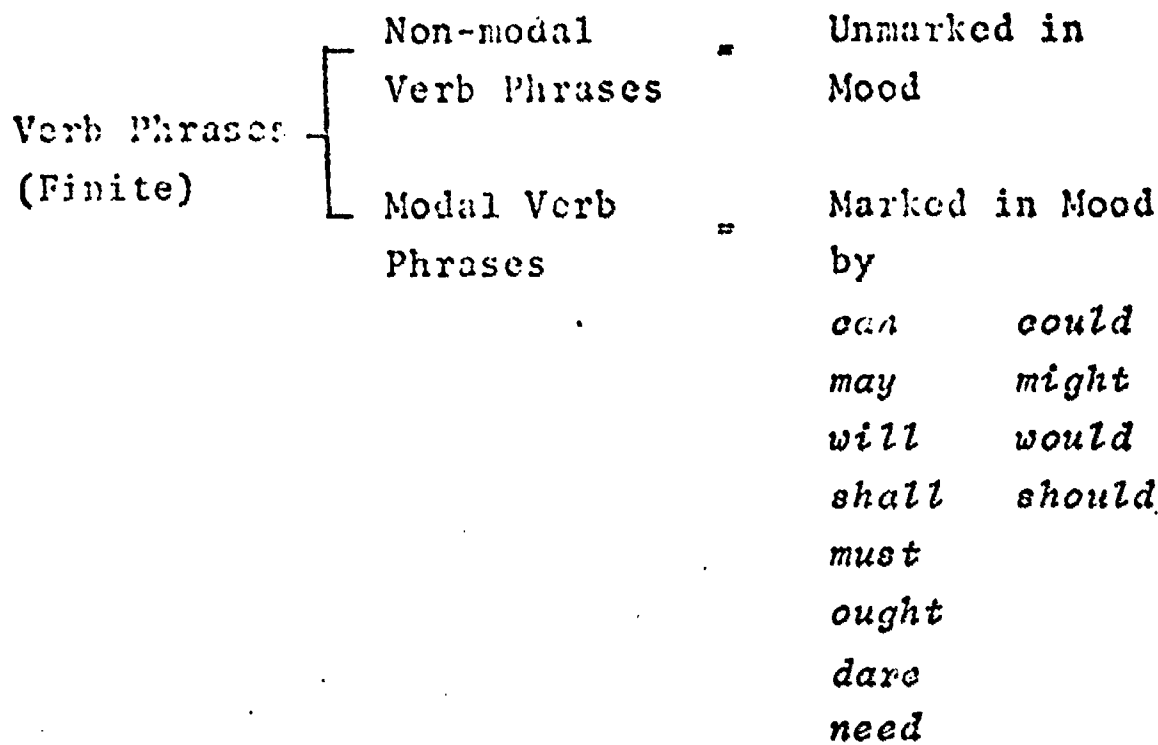


Diagram 3

In the administrative writing corpus, 70% of the verb phrases are non-modal verb phrases and 30% are modal verb

phrases. In the boardroom discussion corpus, 84% of the verb phrases are non-modal verb phrases and 16% are modal verb phrases.

	Verb phrases unmarked in mood	Verb phrases marked in mood
Administrative Writing	70%	30%
Boardroom Discussion	84%	16%

Diagram 4

Proportionately, modal auxiliaries are used by native speakers to a much greater extent when they are writing administrative correspondence than when they are carrying on discussions in the boardroom.

In the administrative writing corpus, of all the modal verb phrases, 67% are marked in mood only, while 33% are marked in the other grammatical categories of phase, aspect and voice as well. Notice that the four 'past' modal auxiliaries *could*, *might*, *would* and *should* mark the category of tense as well as the category of mood by their presence.

	Verb phrases marked in <u>Mood</u> only by <i>can, could, may, might, shall, should, will, would, must, ought, dare, need.</i>	Verb phrases marked in mood as well as other grammatical categories of <u>Phase</u> , <u>Aspect</u> and <u>Voice</u> .
Administrative Writing	67%	33%

Diagram 5

Thus, 67% of the modal verb phrases in the administrative writing corpus are verb phrases such as:-

will recall

can see

would be

should point out

may obtain, etc.

Theoretically, each of the four paired modal auxiliaries, *can/could, may/might, will/would, shall/should*, can enter into the following 16-form paradigm:

	Mood	Phase	Aspect	Voice	
1	<i>will</i>				take
2	<i>would</i>				take
3	<i>will</i>		be		taking
4	<i>would</i>		be		taking
5	<i>will</i>	have			taken
6	<i>would</i>	have			taken
7	<i>will</i>	have	been		taking
8	<i>would</i>	have	been		taking
9	<i>will</i>			be	taken
10	<i>would</i>			be	taken
11	<i>will</i>		be	being	taken
12	<i>would</i>		be	being	taken
13	<i>will</i>	have		been	taken
14	<i>would</i>	have		been	taken
15	<i>will</i>	have	been	being	taken
16	<i>would</i>	have	been	being	taken

Diagram 6

And, theoretically, each of the four unpaired modal auxiliaries *must*, *ought*, *dare*, and *need* can have the following 8 forms:

1	<i>must</i> take
3	<i>must</i> be taking
5	<i>must</i> have taken
7	<i>must</i> have been taking
9	<i>must</i> be taken
11	<i>must</i> be being taken
13	<i>must</i> have been taken
15	<i>must</i> have been being taken

Diagram 7

But, in the administrative writing corpus, for 67% of the occurrences, the modal auxiliary adopts the first and the simplest form in the paradigm. Only about 33% of the modal verb phrases are marked in the other grammatical categories of phase, aspect and voice as well. Their distribution is as follows:

Verb Phrases marked in other grammatical categories as well as mood	<u>Example</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>%</u>
Modal + Passive	<i>may</i> be taken	966	17.8
Past modal + Passive	<i>could</i> be taken	673	12.4
Modal + Progressive	<i>will</i> be sending	77	1.4
Past modal + Progressive	<i>would</i> be sending	19	.3
Past modal + Perfect	<i>would</i> have sent	13	.2
Modal + Perfect	<i>will</i> have sent	11	.2
Past modal + Perfect + Passive	<i>would</i> have been approved	11	.2
Modal + Perfect + Passive	<i>will</i> have been approved	6	.1
		1,776	32.6%

Diagram 8

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Of those verb phrases marked in other grammatical categories as well as mood, about 92% are marked in voice. Less than 8% adopt the other forms of the paradigm. It is clear that the simple forms occur much more frequently than the complex forms -- a welcome fact to know for teaching. Further, it is obvious that for this register, mood should be taught together with voice.

Now, a look at the boardroom discussion corpus. Of all the modal verb phrases, 91% are marked in mood only while a mere 9% are marked in other grammatical categories of phase, aspect and voice as well.

	Verb phrases marked in Mood only by <i>can, could, may, might, will, would, shall, should, must, ought, dare, need.</i>	Verb phrases marked in Mood as well as other grammatical categories of phase, aspect and voice.
Boardroom Discussion	91%	9%

Diagram 5

The distribution of the modal verb phrases marked in other grammatical categories is as follows:

Verb Phrases marked in other grammatical categories as well as mood	Example	Frequency	%
Past Modal + Passive	<i>should</i> be brought	43	3.2
Past Modal + Perfect	<i>would</i> have taken	21	1.5
Modal + Passive	<i>will</i> be made	19	1.4
Past Modal + Progressive	<i>might</i> be doing	16	1.2
Modal + Progressive	<i>may</i> be taking	16	1.2
Modal + Perfect	<i>may</i> have done	10	.7
		125	9.2%

Diagram 10

Notice that in this spoken corpus of over 60,000 words which represents about 10 hours of speech, none of the modal verb phrases is marked in a combination of more than three of the five possible categories of tense, mood, phase, aspect and voice. No instances of '*will have been taking*', '*would be being taken*', '*may have been taken*', or the like ever occurred. This may make us wonder whether we should allocate equal time to the teaching of the simpler and to the more complex structures, irrespective of their actual frequency of occurrence. I feel that a pedagogical grammar should give us answers to this kind of question.

The two registers use different modal auxiliary forms in differing proportions as shown in the Diagrams 11 and 12.

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Modal Forms		
Occurred in both Corpora	Occurred in Administrative Writing only	Occurred in Boardroom Discussion only
<i>can</i> <i>could</i> <i>may</i> <i>might</i> <i>will</i> <i>would</i> <i>shall</i> <i>should</i> <i>must</i> <i>ought</i>	<i>need</i> <i>dare</i>	<i>'d</i> <i>'ll</i> <i>can't</i> <i>wouldn't</i> <i>couldn't</i> <i>won't</i> <i>shouldn't</i> <i>mustn't</i>

Diagram 11

	Past Modals	Non-past Modals
Administrative Writing	46%	54%
Boardroom Discussion	62%	38%

Diagram 12

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One of the grammatical features of modal auxiliaries as auxiliaries is their occurrence before -n't/not for sentence negation. The usual unstressed -n't is lacking with *may*, *might*, *shall* and *ought* in our spoken corpus. Although *can*, *could*, *will* and *would* and *should* have the alternative negative forms

- cannot/can't*
- could not/couldn't*
- will not/won't*
- would not/wouldn't*
- should not/shouldn't*

the contracted form with the unstressed 'n't' is much more frequent in the corpus. The mastery of the 'n't' negation in spontaneous speech seems to be an unavoidable learning target for ESL learners.

As described by modern grammarians, the modal auxiliaries together with the primary auxiliaries form a class with certain grammatical features which are peculiar to English grammar²⁴.

The four important grammatical roles of the auxiliaries are:

- 1) occurrence before -n't/not for sentence negation;
- 2) occurrence before the subject, interrogation being the most common;
- 3) occurrence as an echo or substitute for the entire predicate in repetition; and
- 4) occurrence as the focus for nuclear stress, signifying insistence.

These four grammatical functions of auxiliaries are a feature peculiar to English grammar. In his description of these grammatical features, Twaddell (1965) has the following observations to make: "It must be noted that they are not mere 'privileges' for auxiliaries; an auxiliary is an indispensable component in any English construction of sentence negation, interrogation, stress for insistence, and echo-repetition. These semantic categories are surely among the most pervasive to emerge from any global survey of the syntaxes of the world. The peculiar English focus upon the auxiliaries as their carriers is thus a source of... major conflicting points in any teaching of English²⁵." From our observation of simple modal verb phrases marked in the category of mood only, the occurrence of the modal auxiliaries in the restricted corpora of administrative writing and boardroom discussion are quantified in Diagrams 13 and 14 according to their occurrence in statements, in negation, in interrogation and in echos.

Distribution of Simple Modal Verb Phrases
Marked in Mood only
in a Corpus of Administrative Writing
of approximately 250,000 words

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21

Modal Forms	Modals in Statements	Modals in Negations	Modals in Interrogations	Modal in Echos
1. can	160		11	6
2. cannot		50		
3. could	134	12	16	162
4. may	278	9	26	315
5. might	95	2		97
6. will	921	29	22	972
7. would	647	33	113	793
8. shall	35	5		40
9. should	249	19	44	313
10. must	70			70
11. ought	1			1
12. dare	1			1
13. need	2	3		5
Total	2,593	142	232	2,976
%	87%	4.8%	7.8%	100%

Diagram 13

Distribution of Simple Modal Verb Phrases
Marked in Mood only
in a Corpus of Boardroom Discussion
of Approximately 60,000 words

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Modal Forms	Modals in Statements	Modals in Negations	Modals in Interrogations	Modals in Echos	
1. can	171		5	7	183
2. cannot		2			2
3. can't		49			49
4. could	103	5	7	4	117
5. couldn't		18		1	19
6. may	38	6	5	1	50
7. might	58	2		2	62
8. will	39	2	1	3	45
9. 'll	62				62
10. won't		14			14
11. would	250	5	15	6	276
12. 'd	70		1		71
13. wouldn't		35		1	34
14. shall			7		7
15. should	59	1	3		63
16. shouldn't		5			5
17. must	28				28
18. mustn't		2			2
19. ought	1		1		2
Total	879	142	45	25	1,091
%	80.48	13%	4.1%	2.5%	100%

Diagram 14

Because of the unique grammatical status of this closed class of twelve members, which mark the grammatical category of mood, and because of the semantic indispensability of them in natural discourse, a great deal of work has been done on their description both grammatically and semantically. Witness the works of Joos²⁶, Palmer²⁷, Ehrman²⁸, Twaddell²⁹, Boyd³⁰ and Thorne³¹, and Diver³². But, there has been hardly any attempt in treating quantification of the modals in actual discourse as a factor in grammatical and semantic statement. The quantitative information on the modals presented in this paper may perhaps illustrate the relevance of such information for the preparation of pedagogical grammars. One highlight in conclusion. In our two corpora of over 300,000 words of writing and speech, there are only two instances of the classic 'tag questions'

- You *wouldn't* have one without the other,
would you?

- Yes, but then you'd have the French Canadian
speaking to you in English, *wouldn't* you?

that traditionally take so much time and effort in ESL
teaching.

Another of our on-going projects is a syntactic analysis of spoken and written English. The spoken corpus consists of over 10,000 sentences of Canadian speech. The speakers were taped in unscripted and unrehearsed formal and informal situations. The spoken corpus is composed of four sections A, B, C and D. Section A consists of 500 sentences of formal boardroom discussion; Section B, consists of 500 sentences of informal boardroom discussion; Section C consists of 2,500 sentences of dialogues taken from ESL textbooks and Section D consists of 7,500 sentences of media discussions and interviews. Within each section, the sentences fall into 100-sentence samples. Except for Section C, textbook dialogues, within each sample the sentences represent continuous speech. The tapes were transcribed long-hand, typed and checked against the tape.

Spoken Corpus		
<u>Sections</u>	<u>Materials</u>	<u>Number of Sentences</u>
A	Formal Boardroom Discussion	500
B	Informal Boardroom Discussion	500
C	ESL Textbook Dialogues	2,500
D	Media Discussions and Interviews	7,500

Diagram 15

The samples of Section D were described within the register-framework, using the following work-sheet format:

Samples: D1--D6				
TOPIC:	Canadian Air Transport/Travel 33 rd anniversary of Air Canada			
MODE:	<u>TV</u>	<u>Radio</u> ✓ CBC	<u>Telephone</u>	<u>Live Recording</u> <u>etc</u>
FIELD:	<u>Technical</u> : Professional pilots commemorating air developments.			
	<u>Discussion</u>	<u>Interview</u>	<u>Conversation</u> ✓	<u>etc</u>
MANNER:	<u>Social Attitude</u> :			
	<u>Friendly</u> ✓	<u>Formal</u>	<u>Informal</u>	<u>Informative</u> <u>etc</u> ✓
	<u>Social Role</u> : professionals to laymen			
PARTICIPANTS:	<u>Number</u> : 3, 61-year-old ex-test-pilot with 44 years of flying			
SOURCE:	Winnipeg CBC	DATE:	April, 1970	
SENTENCES:	600*			

Diagram 16

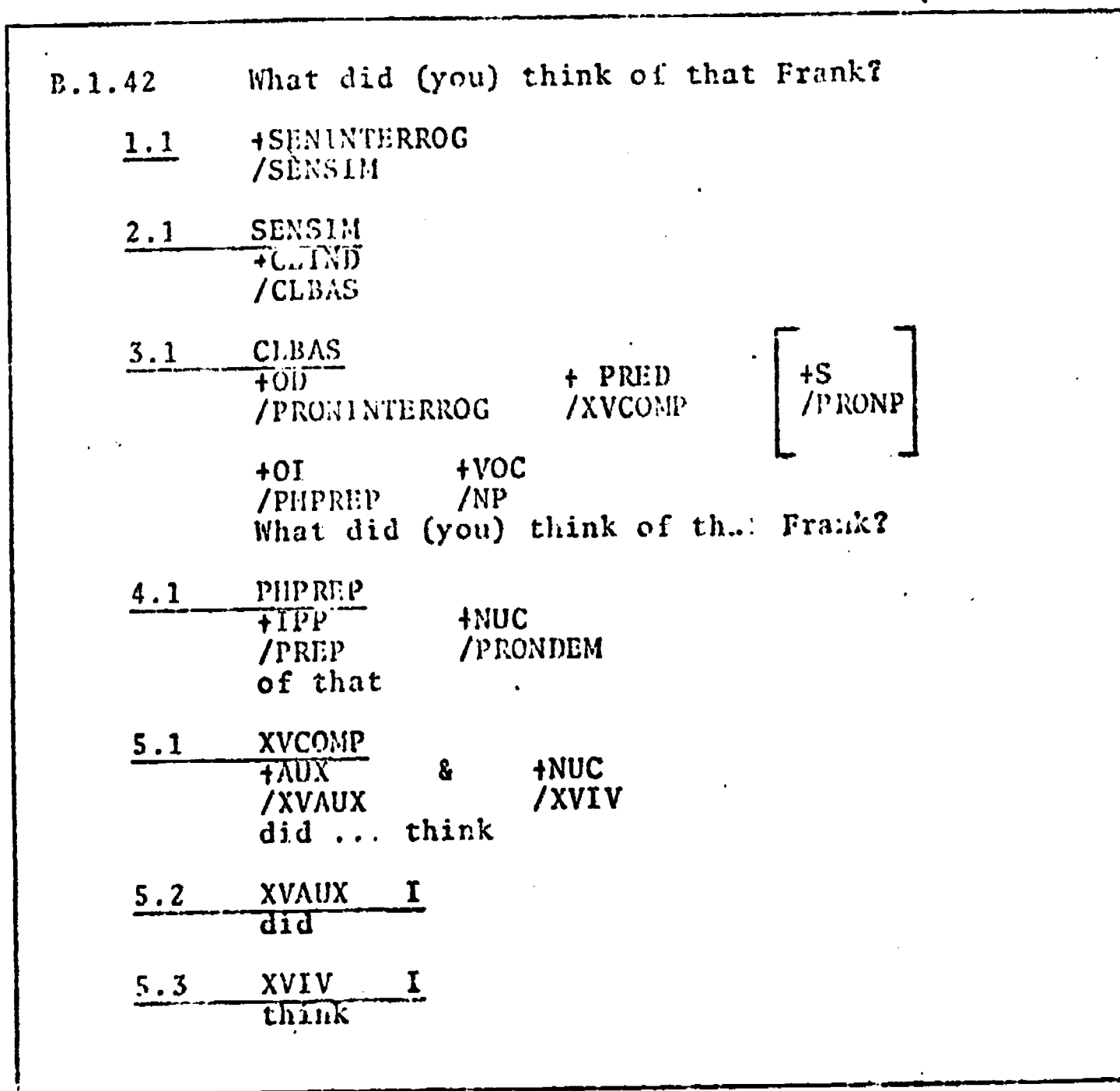
The written corpus consists of over 5,000 sentences. It is composed of two parts. The government half of our written corpus consists of four sections: administrative correspondence, bulletins and information sheets, annual reports for internal consumption and publications for external consumption. The non-government half also consists of four sections. They are newspaper articles, newspaper editorials, magazine articles and magazine editorials, the common theme being media reaction to government policy. The composition of the written corpus may be presented schematically as follows:

Written Corpus			
<u>Part</u>	<u>Sections</u>	<u>Materials</u>	<u>Number of Sentences</u>
I	GOVERNMENT		
	A	Administrative Correspondence	1,000
	B	Bulletins and Information Sheets	500
	C	Annual Reports	500
	D	Publications	<u>1,000</u>
			3,000
II	NON-GOVERNMENT		
	E	Newspaper Articles	1,000
	F	Newspaper Editorials	500
	G	Magazine Articles	1,000
	H	Magazine Editorials	<u>500</u>
			3,000

Diagram 17

The analytical model adopted is the tagmemic model,
 as expounded by Kenneth Pike³⁵ and as modified by Victor
 Barbeau³⁴ who analysed a corpus of spoken and written French
 for the federal language Bureau. As shown by the
 following illustration, the tagmemic model we use is a
 multi-level analytical model; and at each level the sentence
 and its parts are analysed in terms of both function and
 form.

Diagram 18



The analysis has been done manually, and the data processing is being done by computer. When completed, the study will provide computerized data which, among other practical applications, can be used for comparative and contractive study of spoken and written English at each of the five levels: the discourse level, the sentence level, the clause level, the phrase level and the expressional level. The analysis will provide an ordering of syntactic structures from the simple to the complex for both corpora as well as individual sections of the corpora. It will yield information on frequency of occurrence of grammatical structures at all levels, and an inventory of examples of each structure.

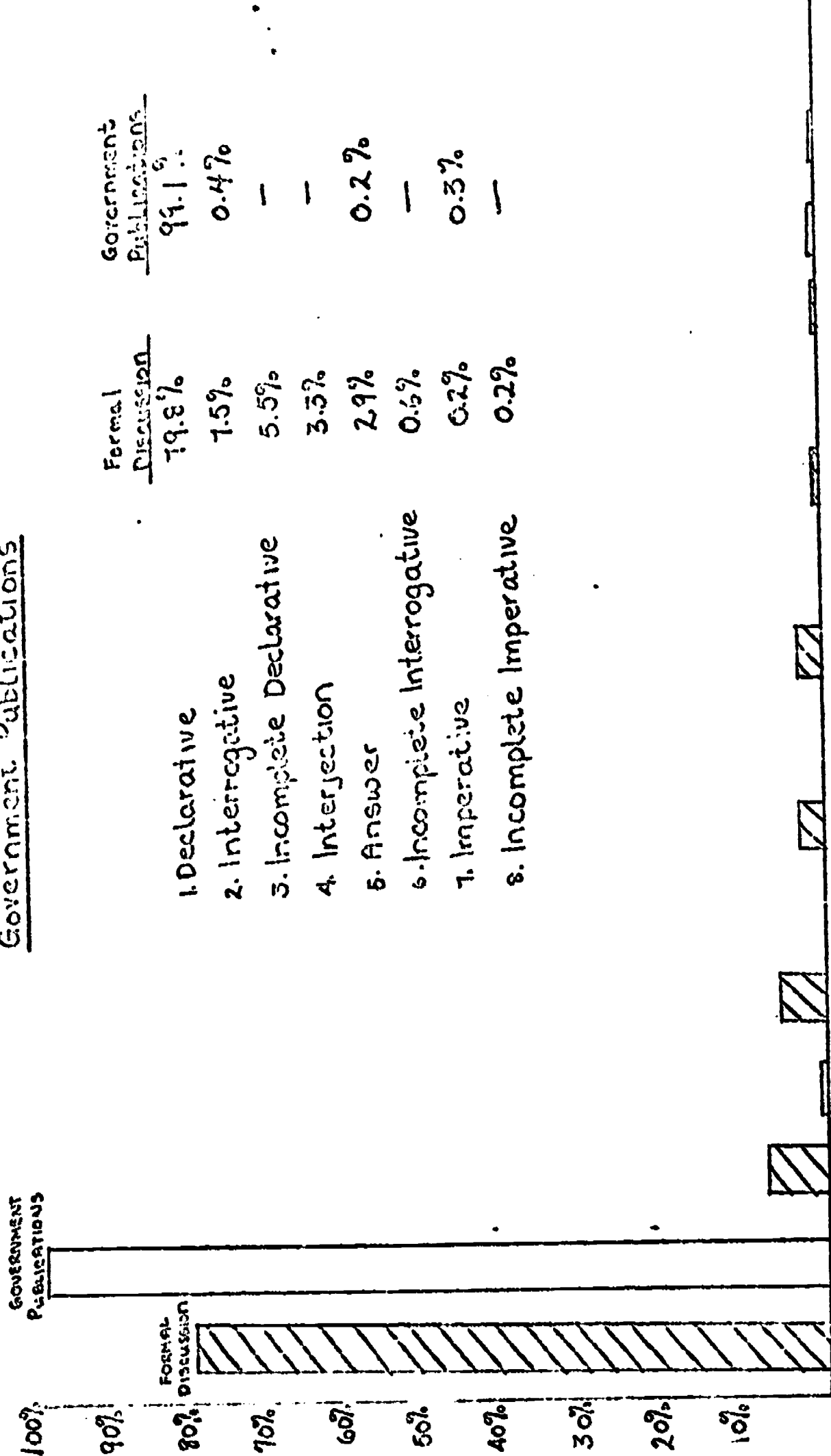
From Level 1, the discourse level we would expect to get such register information as whether a variety makes use of a particular type of sentence to the exclusion of others, --- for instance, whether it consists solely of 'declarative sentences' to the exclusion of 'imperatives' and 'interrogatives'; or whether it has a high proportion of 'simple sentences', or shows a preference of 'complex sentences'. At Level 2, the sentence level, we will be able to get comparative data on sentence typology and structure. There, we are concerned with the 'placement' or 'ordering' of the clause within a sentence. At Level 3, the clause level, we will be able to get comparative data on clause

typology and structure. At this level, we are looking for distinctiveness in a given variety, which involves how linguistic functions within a clause are realised formally, for instance, the proportion of nouns to verbs, the frequency of pronouns as opposed to noun phrases, etc. At Level 4, the phrase level, we will be able to get comparative data on phrase typology and structure for the varieties. For instance, it is easy to see the potential of 'noun phrases' for making register contrasts in terms of complexity, and the potential of 'verb phrases' for making contrasts in the distribution of tense forms. At Level 5, the expressional level, our analysis will yield information on 'frozen expressions', such as two-word verbs, adverbial expressions, etc.

I do not have the time on this occasion to explain the analytical model, or the steps in the computer data-processing of this project, I will simply show you a fraction of the results of Section A of the spoken corpus, Formal Boardroom Discussion and Section D of the written corpus, Government Publications in the form of bar-graphs. By this, I hope you will get some ideas on the kind of grammatical-statistical information this study can give us, and that you will see the relevance of this information to the preparation of pedagogical grammars, which are to meet the needs of course-designers and teachers.

Diagrams 19 and 20 display the distribution of sentence functions and sentence forms in Formal Boardroom Discussion and Government Publications. Notice that there is a greater variety of sentence functions in speech than in writing, but that there are relatively more simple sentences forms in speech than in writing.

Distribution of Sentence Functions
Comparison of Formal Discussion and
Government Publications



Declarative Interrogative Incomplete Declarative
 Interjection Answer Incomplete Imperative Incomplete Imperative
 Interrogative

Diagram 19

Distribution of Sentence Forms
Comparison of Formal Discussion and
Government Publications

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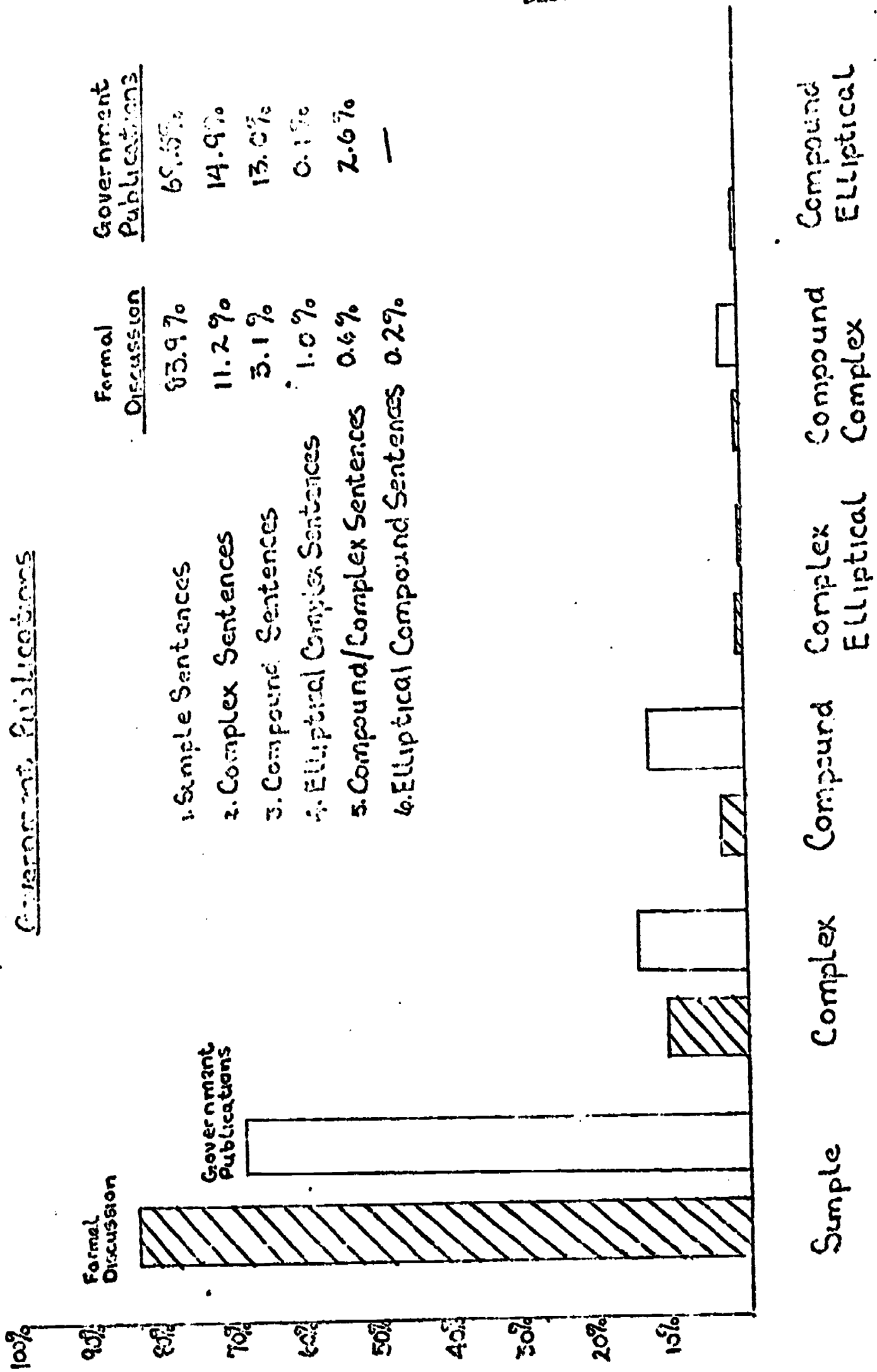
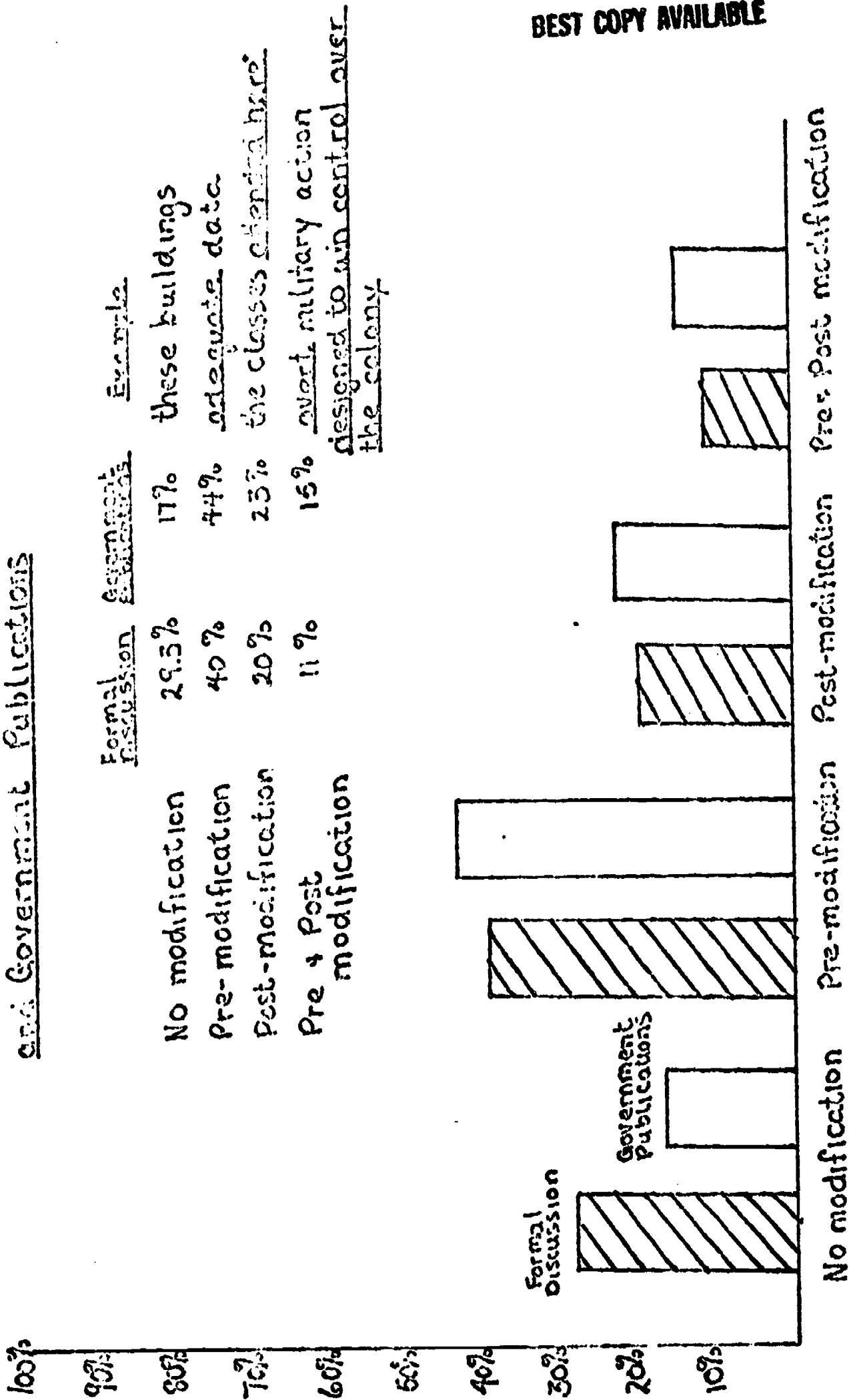


Diagram 20

Diagram 21, shows the distribution of noun phrase types in Formal Boardroom Discussion and Government Publications. The distribution of the noun phrase types does not appear to be very different in the two sections under-study, when the types are classified as - no modification, pre-modification, post-modification, and pre-and post-modification. Diagram 22 displays the distribution of the pre-modification types, again, this is no remarkable, difference in the spoken section and the written section. Diagram 23 displays the distribution of the post-modification types. Here, we see that post-modifications with one or more phrases as well as post-modifications with one or more clauses are important in both sections. However, post-modifications with one or more phrases occur less frequently in speech than in writing, while post-modifications with one or more clauses occur more frequently in speech than in writing.

Distribution of Noun Phrase Types

in Formal Boardroom Discussions and Government Publications



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Distribution of Pre-modification Types
in Formal Discussion Publications
and Government Publications

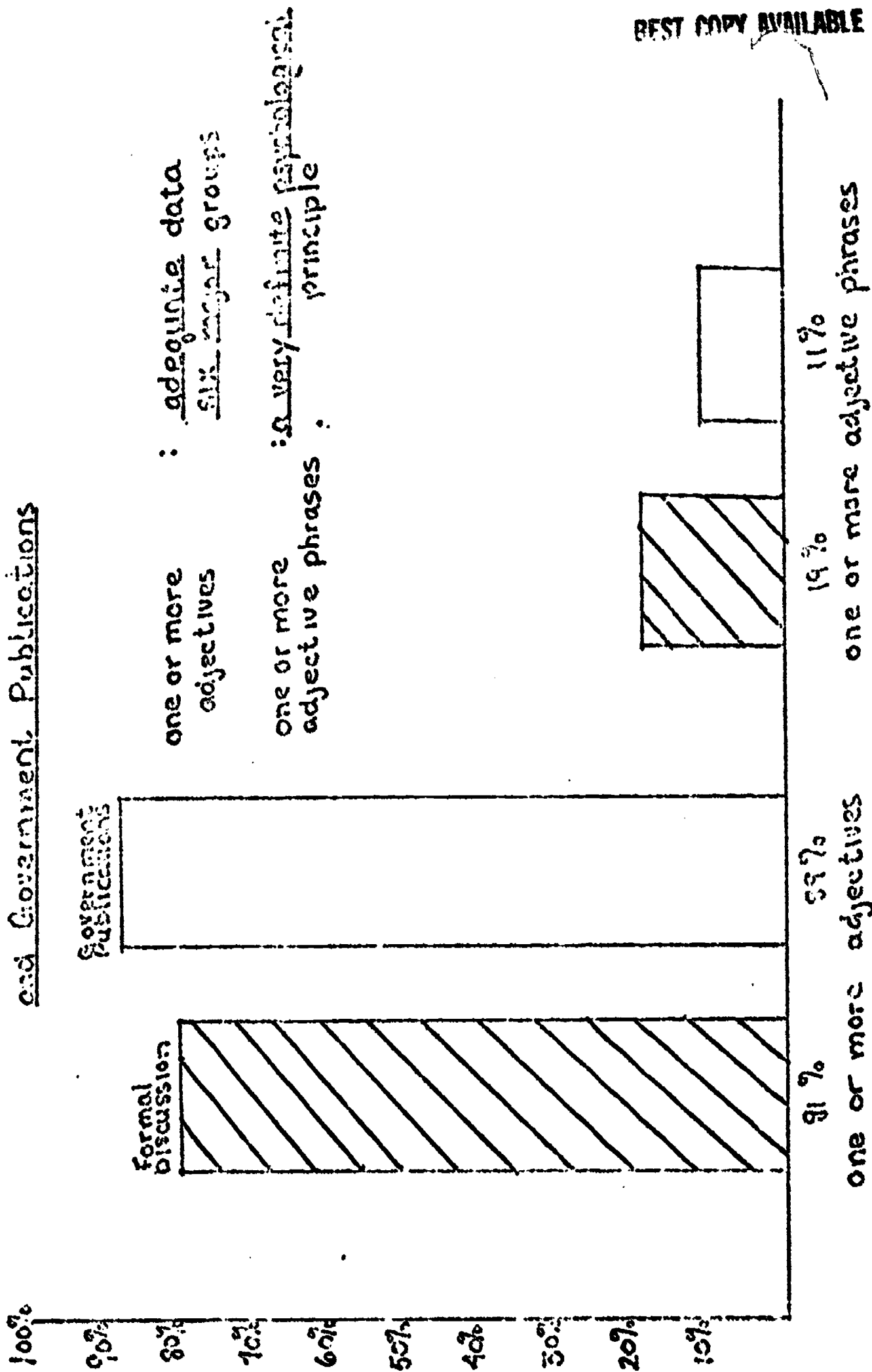


Diagram 22

Distribution of Post-modification Types
in Formal Secretariat Discussions
and Government Publications

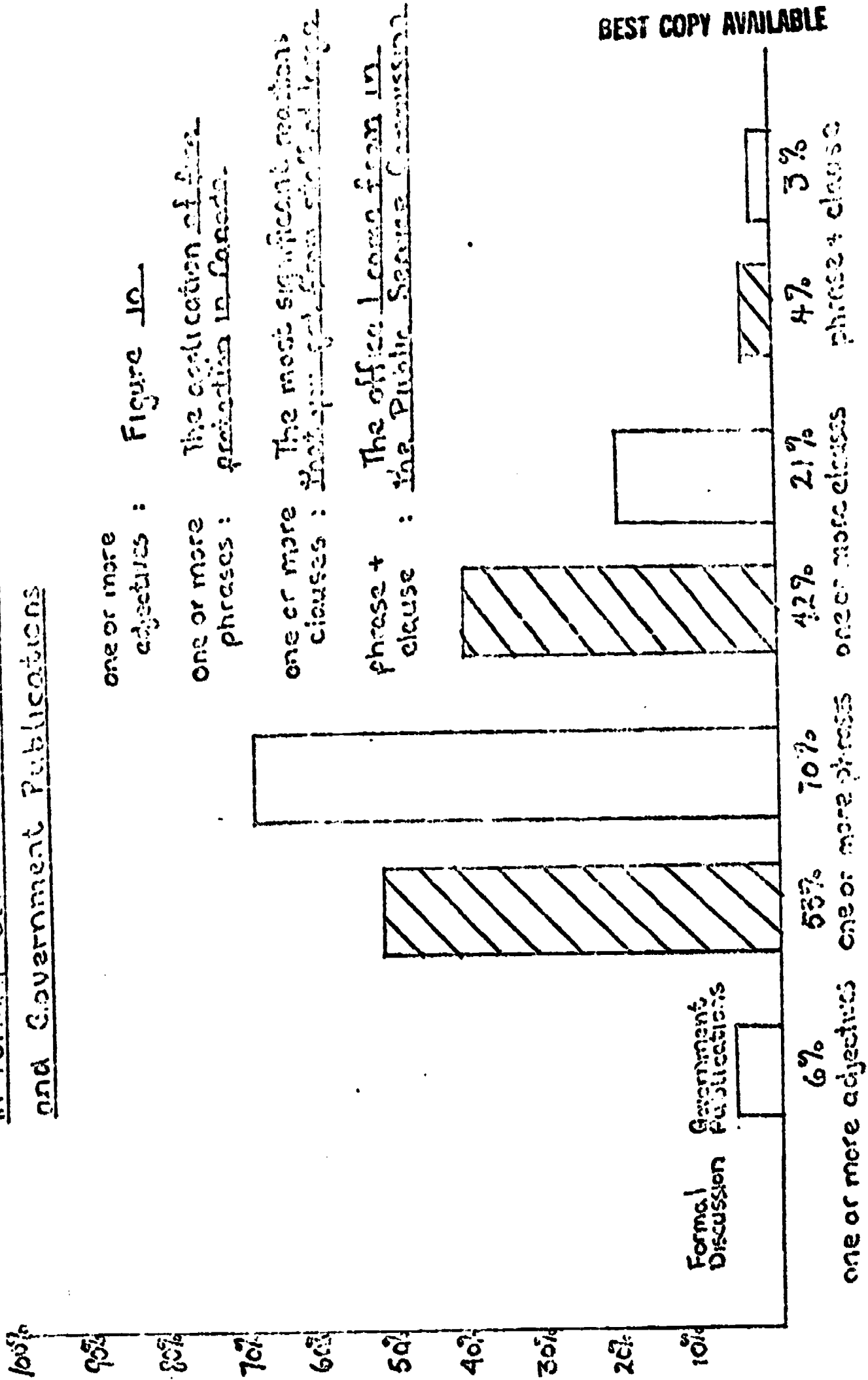


Diagram 23

Similar information can be obtained at each of the five analytical levels for each of the sections in our two corpora. It is my belief that grammatical-statistical information of this nature will contribute to the preparation of the much-needed pedagogical grammars.

Footnotes

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